The Nation.

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The Week.

THE result of the election in Maine on Monday is a great personal victory for Speaker Reed. Indeed, it is not too much to say that it is one of the greatest personal victories ever achieved by a politician in our history. Although the Republicans have only lost the Portland district once since the election of Abraham Lincoln, it has always been close. The highest majority which Mr. Reed has ever received since he was first made the Republican candidate was in the last Presidential year, when he had 2,433 more votes than his Democratic opponent, and this opponent was a rather weak candidate. On Monday he led the Democratic nominee by about 4,500 votes—almost twice his majority of two years ago. It was to be expected that he would be reëlected, as he has never been beaten when he ran before. It was also reasonable to expect that the local pride which a district always feels in seeing its Representative become a great partisan leader, would give the Speaker a good majority this year, especially when his own personal appeal for a vote of confidence was reinforced by earnest appeals from several other leading Republican Congressmen who took the stump in his behalf. Moreover, the Republicans had all the advantages of a good organization and plenty of money, while the Democratic campaign seems to have been left to run itself. Good judges have therefore anticipated a considerable majority for Mr. Reed, but neither friend nor foe expected so overwhelming a victory. It would be ridiculous to depreciate its importance or significance.

Through the remainder of this Congress Mr. Reed will absolutely control the action of the House. He will dictate the final form which the Tariff Bill shall take in the Conference Committee. If the Republicans elect the next House, he will be made Speaker without any opposition. If the Democrats secure a majority next November, he will be the leader of the minority on the floor. In either case he will be a candidate for the Presidency. Already the signs of his "boom" are visible in the work of a "literary bureau" which has begun sending out by the thousand a newspaper supplement of four pages containing a mass of matter eulogizing the Speaker, several copies of which have been received at this office from different parts of the country. The opponents of high tariffs and force bills and all the other materialistic and centralizing tendencies of the time in the Republican organization have no reason to be dissatisfied with the elevation of Mr. Reed to the leadership of his party. He represents that party as it exists to-day better than any other man, and it is always to be desired in a representative government that the head of a party should be its real leader. He typifies the Republican party of 1890, and furnishes the best possible test for passing national judgment upon that party. If the people of the United States, upon sober reflection, endorse that party, they will make him again Speaker of the House next year, and they should elect him President in 1892. It is needless to say that we do not anticipate any such result.

The most interesting feature of Mr. Reed's speech at Portland on Thursday evening was his slap at Mr. Blaine in return for the latter's recent snub of him. It will be remembered that in his Waterville speech Mr. Blaine did not so much as once mention the Speaker of the House, the great figure on the Republican side in the Maine canvass. At Portland Mr. Reed had his innings. "Since 1874," he said in his defence of the Force Bill, "*when the Republican party first faltered in its great duty* of preserving liberty and equality before the law for all citizens of the United States, a Republican House of Representatives has been rare." This is an allusion to the Force Bill which was pushed by Mr. Lodge's exemplar, Gen. Butler, in the session of 1874-75, and defeated through the opposition of Republicans. It is true that among these Republican opponents were also James A. Garfield, Joseph R. Hawley, and many other prominent men; but all their efforts would have been in vain had they not been supported by James G. Blaine, who as Speaker permitted and encouraged the filibustering tactics which killed the bill. Speaker Reed might as well have said, in so many words, "since 1874, when, under Mr. Blaine's leadership, the Republican party first faltered in its great duty."

The official returns of the Kentucky election last month come to hand just as the country is digesting the result of the Vermont election on Tuesday week, and they are equally significant of the drift of the tide in politics. Vermont is always carried by the Republicans, but their majority at the recent election was the smallest ever known, even in an off year. Kentucky is always carried by the Democrats, but their majority at the recent election was the largest ever known in an off year. The total Democratic vote was 161,712, which was never before exceeded except in Cleveland's record of 183,800 in 1888, while the Republican ticket received only 107,005, against 155,134 for Harrison two years ago. The Democratic majority in Kentucky has thus almost doubled, as compared with the last Presidential election, while the Republican majority in Vermont is cut down one-half, as compared with the same year.

It is amusing to read the comments of Republican organs upon the result in Vermont. Says the Boston *Journal:* "There were no general issues at stake, and in consequence the vote was a very light one. The apparent decrease, therefore, in the Republican majority has no political significance." In like manner the Philadelphia *Press* says: "There was no great national issue at stake which called upon the party to make a record in the election. There was nothing to arouse the voters to a sense of their duty when the result of the poll was only a question of the size of the majority." But what "general issues," as the *Journal* calls them, or "great national issue," as the *Press* puts it, were at stake in 1886, the last previous election in a non-Presidential year, or in 1882, or in 1878, or in 1874, or in 1870? Was there in any one of those off years a single national issue to compare in importance with either the McKinley Tariff Bill or the Lodge Force Bill? Yet in 1870 the Republican plurality in Vermont was 21,309; in 1874, 20,325; in 1878, 20,065; in 1882, 21,373; and in 1886, 20,522; while in 1890 it has sunk to only 14,000. In every one of these previous elections, when the issues at stake were far less important, Republican organs asserted that the large Republican majority was full of significance, and it is absurd to say now that it does not mean anything when the majority is unprecedentedly small. The truth is, as the Burlington *Free Press* lately remarked, that "the Republicans of the country at large have got into the habit of looking to the Vermont election as a significant indicator of the strength of parties and set of the political current among intelligent and thinking men throughout the Union"; and, having formed this habit, there is no reason in the world for not deeming the recent election as significant as any of its predecessors.

We have read with care the reports of the recent election in Arkansas published in the *State Register*, the Republican organ at Little Rock, on the following day, and we must say that they furnish no fair basis for the claim so industriously made by Republican organs at the North that the Democrats won by force and fraud. Despatches from a number of counties were printed, and most of them were of this tenor: "The election passed off quietly"; "the election here was peaceable"; "the election in this county passed off quietly"; "the election here passed off quietly"; "the election was the most quiet and peaceable we ever had." The only exceptions to this sort of reports are in the Third Ward of Little Rock, where the Republicans claim to have been cheated out of hundreds of votes; in Conway County, where the *Register's* correspondent says, "we have no hopes of a fair count"; and in Ouachita County, where a band of armed men warned the negroes in one township against trying to vote the Republican ticket, and drove from the polls some who disregarded the warning. On the other hand, we find in Democratic papers reports from

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various counties that the Democrats gained largely, both among the negroes (members of that race having been nominated upon their local tickets in a number of cases) and among the white Republicans, one despatch mentioning as "a notable fact that some of the most conservative white Republicans have left their party on account of the pending Force Bill, and say that as long as that and similar enactments are held over the South they will stay out." On the whole, we can see no reason for any candid man to doubt that the Democrats carried Arkansas fairly by a large majority. Any other result would, indeed, have been most extraordinary. When the Republican majority even in Vermont is cut down one-half since the last election, it is inconceivable that Arkansas should show Republican gains

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The intensely bitter attack which a Republican Congressman, Mr. Kennedy of Ohio, made upon Senator Quay on the floor of the House last week is the latest revelation to the country of the volcanic internal condition of the Republican party. Mr. Kennedy spoke from manuscript, and the circumstances attending the delivery of the speech all point strongly to the suspicion that he made his attack with the knowledge and approval of the Speaker, and of Mr. Burroughs, whom the Speaker had left to fill his place in the chair. The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent gives indirect sanction to this view by saying: "Whatever criticism may be passed upon Mr. Kennedy on the score of taste, or the lack of it, in choosing the present moment —after the Republican majority in the Senate has made pledges to proceed in December next to the consideration of the Elections Bill, and to dispose of it one way or other—in order to arraign Mr. Quay for the part he took in the disposal of that matter, there is no denying the fact that he represents a large, almost an overwhelming, majority of Republicans in the House in their judgment of Mr. Quay's course with reference to it." But Mr. Kennedy did not sit in judgment upon Mr. Quay's course towards the Elections Bill, but upon his record as a public thief. Does the *Tribune* mean to say that an "overwhelming majority of the Republicans of the House" are so enraged with Quay for defeating the Force Bill that they agree with Mr. Kennedy when he denounces Quay as a "branded criminal," whose "silence is a confession of guilt," and who stands "a convicted criminal before the bar of public opinion under such circumstances that he should be driven from the head of a party whose very life his presence imperils"?

The more mature feeling of the Republicans at Washington about Mr. Kennedy's attack on Quay is, according to the *Tribune's* correspondent, "one of hot and almost universal indignation, as well as profound regret." There has accordingly been "a long and earnest consultation" about it among the Pennsylvanians, who are "especially indignant." What does the reader suppose they have determined to do about it? Ask Kennedy to retract? Show him that his charges were false? Get Quay to bring suits against his slanderers? Get Senator Cameron and Wayne MacVeagh to clear him? Not by any means. What this "hot indignation" and "long and earnest consultation" have produced is "the draft of a resolution to expunge the speech from the *Record*." But expunging the speech from the *Record* does not recall the speech. It does not take out of the memory of the public the fact that a member of Congress in good standing, and a stanch Republican, is convinced that Quay is a man of very bad character, and so thoroughly convinced of it that he could not help giving public utterance to his belief. Therein lies the trouble of the occasion. The Pennsylvanians can expunge from the *Record* as much as they please, but they cannot pluck the rooted sorrow from Quay's brain. They cannot raise him in the estimation of a single human being who now considers him a scoundrel. They cannot undo his robbery of the State Treasury. They cannot make his past life clean or respectable. They cannot wipe out the disgrace to the State of ever having had such a sorry scamp as a political leader, and, fouler still, of having sent him to the United States Senate. They cannot give back to Don Cameron the money he advanced to save him from ruin or suicide. They cannot enable Wanamaker to get up and tell his Sunday-school that he paid over the campaign funds in 1888 to a man whom he knew to be honorable, just, and true in all his dealings. No, indignant Pennsylvanians, none of these comforts are within your reach. You can forgive or shelter your man, but you cannot rehabilitate him. You can doctor the *Record*, but you cannot doctor the culprit.

We observe that the *Tribune* continues to refrain from giving any opinion as to the fitness of Mr. Delamater for the Governorship of Pennsylvania, and from advising the Republicans of the State as to their obligation to support such a candidate after he has been forced upon the party by a man like Quay, and put upon a platform which would make his election an approval by the party of Quay's methods in public office and politics. These are matters which are seriously disturbing the minds of many loyal Republicans in Pennsylvania, as will be seen by any one who will read the address which eminent members of the party have just put forth in Philadelphia. Many of the men who have signed this document are not Mugwumps, but, as they take pains to say in its opening paragraph, "have been, since the birth of the party, earnest Republicans who have given its policy and plans their constant approval and support." Why they are unable to do so now they state as follows:

> "No more serious, clear, or unavoidable issue than this could be presented to the people. Mr. Quay is the acknowledged, unblushing champion of political corruptionists. He is silent under a recent responsible and repeated charge of the embezzlement of public money; he selects Mr. Delamater as candidate for Governor, and a pliant convention ratifies his selection; the party platform endorses Mr. Quay, and Mr. Delamater stands on the party platform and on no other. The conclusion is irresistible that the election of Mr. Delamater will have as its main and most potent result the public approval of Mr. Quay, and his permanent intrenchment in the Republican party of the State as its acknowledged leader and counsellor, the representative of its principles and the exponent of its policy."

It is interesting to note that the Republican organ of Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia *Press*, does not call the signers of the address Mugwumps, but says they are "nearly all of high business or professional standing; and while all are novices in politics and totally misguided, the motives of some—however mistaken—are to them doubtless sincere enough." It goes on to say that these "novices in politics" have been misled into giving their countenance to an attack upon the protective tariff. "It will have no effect upon the leaders of this movement," says the *Press*, "to tell them they are aiding the destructive tariff policy of the Democratic party; that is what they want to do." Will it have any effect upon you, Mr. *Press*, to ask you what you were doing when you said in 1885 that Quay's nomination for State Treasurer "would take the lid from off the Treasury, and uncover secrets before which Republicans would stand dumb"? Were you "aiding the destructive tariff policy of the Democratic party" then, or what were you doing? Had the tariff any more to do with what you were saying then than it has with what these "novices in politics" are saying now? Would it not be much better for you if you were to stand dumb before the revelations which have come because the lid *has been* taken from the Treasury, than to talk what you and every one of your readers know to be nonsense?

The more Mr. Blaine and the *Tribune* discuss our commercial situation the more intricate, inscrutable, and, in fact, incomprehensible it becomes. The *Tribune* said on Friday that "in no year for the last quarter of a century have our exports in gold amounted to more than $64,000,000"; that is, exports from the United States to all parts of the world, we presume. Now, according to Mr. Blaine's recent showing, our losses in the trade with the West Indies, Central and South America, last year amounted to $143,000,000, which, as we understand him, we either paid in gold or have not paid at all. But suppose we did pay these $64,000,000, there still remains a balance of $79,000,000 unsettled. Now, it is quite certain that we got the goods which this amount represents: Mr. Blaine admits that the rascals unloaded them on us. If, therefore, we have not paid for them, is there not a balance of $79,000,000 in our favor—that is, have we not got $143,000,000 worth of produce for $64,000,000? It may be this calculation is not correct. The reciprocity plan, as Mr. Blaine and the *Tribune* set it forth, cannot be mastered at once by an ordinary intelligence, and it may be, therefore, that we have fallen into some error. If so, we shall be glad to be set right. The puzzle is increased by the fact that our total net exports of gold and silver in 1889 were only $68,346,042, totally

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insufficient to settle our American balance. But besides this we had a balance of about $7,000,000 against us in Austria-Hungary, of about—we use round numbers—$12,000,000 in China, of about $20,000,000 in France, of about $20,000,000 in Germany, and of about $200,000,000 in Great Britain. How, in the name of Reciprocity and all the Protectionist gods, was all this settled? If not settled, how will it be settled? Has $259,000,000 of gold "left the country" in 1889? If it has, we shall never say a good word for gold again.

The Raum scandal has already become so intolerable that Republican newspapers are beginning to demand the removal of the Pension Commissioner. "With all the attempts made to gloss over Gen. Raum's administration of the Pension Office," says the Boston *Record*, "this much is clear: he is in the hands of the pension agents in Washington, and that is reason enough why we should have a new Commissioner, and not a soldier of fortune either. Raum went into it to enrich himself and take care of his relatives, while the only way to keep the Pension Bureau from scandal is to have an honest and stiff-backed man at the head of it." The demand for Gen. Raum's removal from the Pension Office in September, 1890, recalls the fact that it was in September, 1889, that Corporal Tanner was forced out of the same office, his letter to the President bearing date of the 12th of that month. At this rate there will be a chance for two more appointments and removals of commissioners like Tanner and Raum before the end of Mr. Harrison's term.

Mr. Andrew D. White read a paper before the Social Science Association at Saratoga on Thursday on the "Government of American Cities," in which he denounced very sensibly the theory that the city is a political body, to be governed as such, instead of a corporate body owning property to be managed as such. But he concluded that the last-named theory could not be acted on in this country. So he proposed "a compromise," in which there should be a Mayor and Common Council elected by the votes of all the citizens on a general ticket, to represent politics, and he would then have another body elected by property-owners to be called "the Board of Control," to represent property, and have a vote on all expenditures except those for education. As regards the first part of the plan we do not see how it would exclude politics from city administrations in the smallest degree; and as regards the second, Mr. White probably forgets that this very scheme, with this very name, was carefully propounded by Gov. Tilden's Commission in 1877 as a constitutional amendment, passed one Legislature, and was killed in the next by order of Mr. Conkling. There is much less chance of its passing now than then. Politics cannot be excluded from the administration of any American city under an elective system, except through what we may call a change of heart on the part of the intelligent classes of the community. In New York this class, under the name of Republicans, has encouraged in every possible way for over thirty years the notion that a city is a political body, and municipal elections political elections, and has actually subscribed money and paid lewd fellows of the baser sort for propagating this theory. Small blame to the poor ignorant foreigners for embracing the doctrine with eagerness, and rushing into the arms of Tammany. It is this state of mind we must change in order to have real and lasting municipal reform. We have in New York already as good a board of control as could be created, and we have more Common Council than we have any need of or than is good for us. What we want is a shame or sorrow among the well-to-do and intelligent over the condition of city affairs, and a strong determination that this great national disgrace shall cease from among us.

The probability of another famine, or, at all events, great scarcity and resulting suffering in Ireland, owing to the failure of the crops, is now acknowledged on all hands. The Tories themselves admit it, and admit that something must be done by the Government to make head against it. One of its first consequences will undoubtedly be a demand for a further reduction of the "judicial rents," and as this will probably be refused, there will be another crop of evictions and the now usual accompanying agitation and resistance and tumult both in England and Ireland. There is nothing new about this failure of crops and resulting inability to pay rent. It has been one of the usual episodes of Irish agricultural history for the last hundred and fifty years, owing in part to the uncertainty of the climate. Until Mr. Gladstone took the Irish question up, however, these things excited no attention in England, and the landlords had it all their own way. The fact is, however, that the soil of Ireland never has been able to maintain a landed gentry besides the actual cultivators of the soil, except by keeping the cultivators' standard of living down to the lowest point, and extracting the rent at the point of the bayonet. In other words, Irish farmers, taking one year with another, cannot pay an economical rent, and the English public is gradually having its eyes opened to this fact through the painful process of the home-rule agitation.

The outcome of the London dock strike has been and is very interesting. It drove the dock companies, most of which were on the verge of bankruptcy, into a compromise with the strikers, the main feature of which was a slight advance in wages, combined with regular instead of occasional employment. The system previously pursued had been to summon from the large crowd of "casuals" who hang round the gates, as many men as were needed for any particular job and pay them by the hour. For this was substituted regular wages paid to a certain number of men, whose condition was thereby undoubtedly improved, and the strike had probably the effect of improving the manners of the dock officials towards them. The result was treated as a great triumph in all labor circles, and Tom Mann, the agitator who managed the strike, became a personage of immense importance. The men employed by the companies were, however, naturally found much less manageable than they used to be, and the problem of keeping the shipping business in the port of London more difficult than ever. The dock companies cannot now guarantee to ship-owners the prompt loading or discharge of their cargoes, because Tom Mann may at any moment make some fresh exaction, or interpose some fresh objection to their way of doing business.

Some of the other consequences of the success of the strike are very instructive. The "casuals" were a heterogeneous mass of unskilled labor, composed partly of broken-down or characterless men who had lost their footing in regular callings, and partly of that drift, from the agricultural districts, of adventurers tired of farm and village life, over which all the lovers and admirers of the older England are now sending up such a loud lament. The dock companies dived into the crowd without discrimination, took the first comers, and, one way or another, diffused such wages as they had to offer through the whole body in the course of the year. Now, however, Tom Mann's men have announced their intention of closing their union—that is, limiting it to a certain number, and refusing admission to all new comers, who may, he says, if they cannot do anything else, go on the poor rates for subsistence, for all he cares.

The success of the London dockers' movement has done much to beget and diffuse all over the kingdom notions of the wildest character as to the possibilities of Socialistic legislation. The Trade-Union Conference held in Liverpool last week, undoubtedly under the influence of the dockers' strike, threw to the winds the old-fashioned conservatism and sober common sense which have hitherto distinguished English workmen from their brethren in France and Germany. The reforms there talked of would, in fact, involve a reorganization of society with "labor on top." Tom Mann, and John Burns the London Socialistic agitator, were the leading spirits of the gathering, and spouted more nonsense than we have ever heard from Powderly. Doubtless their threats will produce among many people in England the belief which the earlier deliverances of the Knights of Labor created here, that a great social revolution is imminent, in which the world will be ruled by Walking Delegates who hardly know how to read or write. Nothing of the kind is likely to happen. What will result from these great labor disturbances which we are witnessing all over the world, until the reaction comes, is simply a great increase of timidity among capitalists, much shifting of capital from one country to another, a considerable reduction in the average of profits, and a great aggravation of that difficulty of finding secure investments which already fills the lives of parents, trustees, and small annuitants with so much anxiety.

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THE BLAINE EXPLOSION.

THERE is no doubt that Mr. Blaine's plan of "reciprocity" is rapidly taking hold of the minds of Republican voters, and has already borne fruit in the Aldrich amendment, which is simply a monstrous and unconstitutional way of putting it into execution, inasmuch as it proposes to commit the imposing and removing of taxes to the President alone. The reason why this monstrous and unconstitutional expedient has to be resorted to in order to get over the difficulties which lie in the way of securing reciprocity by treaty, is to be found in the extraordinary kind of instruction as to the nature of foreign trade which the Republican leaders have been supplying to the masses during the last twenty-five years. The protectionist gospel preached during that period has been indeed as wonderful a mass of absurdities as can be found in the history of the human mind. That the explosion of these absurdities should at last have begun, no matter from what quarter the impulse may come, must be a source of rejoicing to every lover of his kind or of his country.

Foremost among them was the doctrine, which Mr. Blaine actually preached so late as 1888, that foreign trade was a pernicious thing for the United States, even if it were attainable, and that Mr. Cleveland did wrong in suggesting it as a relief for some of our present financial troubles. But this doctrine, queer as it is to preach in a country whose sails in the first half of the century swarmed on every sea, was the natural sequence of the doctrine that foreign trade was a thing which individuals would or could carry on year after year at a loss unless the Government interfered to stop their folly. The success with which this ridiculous notion was spread through the country was due to two things—the complete absorption of Eastern capital and capitalists since the war in railroads and protected manufactures, and the growth in the West of an immense population which had no experience of foreign trade and knew nothing about "abroad," and which was absorbed in domestic trade and agriculture. If the farmer had been also the direct exporter of his produce to the European markets, the true nature of the situation would doubtless long ago have dawned on him. But he sells to middlemen, who find the foreign market for his goods.

As matters have stood, nobody of much popular weight and influence has had a direct interest in exploding the delusion that men, if let alone, would trade with foreigners in such a way as to ruin their own country, and that foreigners could come here and unload great quantities of goods on us against our will, for which they would take pay only in gold, and go off leaving us without a dollar of that metal in our pockets. Mr. Blaine's story the other day, about the loss of $143,000,000 in our West Indian and South and Central American trade in 1889, could only have been told to a nation which had for a quarter of a century sat in economical darkness, and which had completely lost familiarity with the machinery of foreign commerce. Of course, all the houses engaged in this trade in our great seaports saw the absurdity of it perfectly, and have been laughing in their sleeves over it for the last fortnight, as a droll illustration of the American politician's demagogy; but they are not in politics. They are in business, and they know they are a class whom the people have been taught to despise and hate as in some mysterious way enemies of the country. So they keep very still, and let the politicians' tongues wag. The other class which could expose this curious folly is the college professors, but the high-tariff men have managed, with great dexterity, to discredit them also since the war, as unpractical and visionary and theoretical, and as too ignorant of the art of making money to be worth attention. The newspapers have been easily quieted, by being either "owned" or "muzzled;" so the preachers of absurdity have had free course.

That the first rays of light should come from Mr. Blaine, as one of these preachers, and that the Home-Market Club of Boston should be willing to flash them around New England, is surely a most encouraging event. For this "reciprocity" plan, whatever its crudeness, has the great merit of teaching the voters, by the discussion it creates, that foreign trade is not necessarily an unprofitable or pernicious thing; that it consists in barter; that the foreigner who sells us goods does not insist on being paid in gold, and could not get the gold if he tried; that it is a wise thing to exchange with foreigners things in the production of which we have an advantage, for things in the production of which they have an advantage; that men are not such idiots as to pursue steadily a losing business unless they are restrained and directed by a tariff; and that imports, whatever they are, must always be paid for in American labor, and constitute, *per se*, an effectual demand for American labor.

That all this should be acknowledged even in the columns of the *Tribune*, is surely "the Lord's doing and it is marvellous in our eyes." That the friends of "reciprocity" should be sensitive about having this spoken of as "free trade" is natural enough, considering the way they have been talking about free trade and free-traders for the last twenty years. They have, as part of the policy of protection, invented and spread a lot of myths about the character and designs of free-traders, and about the nature of their doctrines, which were better fitted for use among Russian muzhiks than among the citizens of a free democracy. These myths have been a disgrace to American intelligence, and have for a long time made Americans hang their heads for shame when they found themselves in the society of educated men from other countries. If reciprocity puts a stop to them, it will do much for the credit both of the American press and platform.

POWDERLY'S GREAT CONSPIRACY.

MR. POWDERLY has furnished a complete vindication of the New York Central Railway for its course in the recent strike, by putting in evidence before the State Board of Arbitration copies of a remarkable correspondence between himself and Lee, the Knight who was the local leader of the strike. Why he should have revealed this correspondence is a mystery, for it convicts both himself and Lee of conspiring secretly to organize the employees of the Central Railway Company against the management, in order to make it possible to "tie up" not merely that road, but all other railways in the country, either in 1892, the Presidential election year, or in 1893, the year of the proposed World's Fair. Incidentally, Powderly's letters reveal a condition of affairs on the Reading Road previous to the last strike there which vindicates that company also for the course it took to crush out the "noble and holy order" from among its employees. In fact, the correspondence shows Powderly to be a pernicious meddler in the affairs of railway companies, devoting all his energies to encouraging the men to be false to their employers, and consequently unworthy of trust and unfit for employment in any position of responsibility.

The first letter in the published correspondence is dated at Scranton on February 8 last. It was addressed to Lee, and shows in every line that he was at that time engaged in organizing the Central's employees for a strike—six months before it was ordered. Powderly advises Lee "to go cautiously, feel your way carefully, and secure yourselves in your footholds firmly before stepping into unknown depths in order to secure more advantages." "Remember," he says, "that you are coping with one of the greatest corporations in America, and that can bring to its aid in a struggle millions of dollars where organized labor cannot bring as many cents." As an evidence of the folly of striking at an inopportune time, he gives this most instructive glimpse of the power of the Knights on the Reading Road previous to the strike there a few years ago:

> "The men on the Reading Railroad actually controlled the entire management, and had everything their own way. They grew restive, and allowed incendiary counsels to prevail. *It was no uncommon thing for them to stop a train on the main track and talk to an up-train in order to settle some little matter.* That sort of thing could not last, and when they finally struck it was at the wrong time for the men, and just the time to suit the company."

That is the ideal condition of a railway from the Powderly point of view—the men "controlling the entire management and having everything their own way," and stopping trains on the main track whenever they wish to "settle some little matter." This was the model he was holding up for Lee to attain on the Central. Lee replies that he will do his best, saying under date of February 10: "We will associate our efforts to the end that none but our coolest and wisest members shall be selected to carry out the work of our district organization, *men who will always work for the best interest of the order, and endeavor to hold the respect of the officers of the railroad company.*" Lee photographs his character perfectly in that passage. He stands revealed as a man who was working secretly

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against the interests of his employers, yet endeavoring at the same time to retain their confidence. Powderly thoroughly approves of this kind of service, for in a letter to Lee, dated April 17, he says:

"This is your plan: Go on with the work of organization, do it as quietly as possible, work hereafter under secret orders, and divulge nothing to the outside world as to movements or work done. Put organizers to work on the West Shore Road and all along the entire Vanderbilt system. When you can induce a young man to quit the service of the company, do so. Have as many as think of going elsewhere this spring do so in a body, if they can be relied on to do it that way. Have them give as a reason, if asked, that they are offered better wages and inducements elsewhere."

Lee endeavored to the best of his ability to carry out these instructions, but he was so zealous for the order, and so negligent of his duties to the company, that he got into trouble, as his letter of July 31 shows:

"We are having a very serious time of it here. The New York Central corporation are crowding us very hard, laying off men right and left, and *the worst of it is, the men who have been promoting the best interest of the organization are the ones selected for dismissal.* It looks to me as if the company wants to have the men strike at this time in order to break up the organization, as it would be a very easy matter for them to defeat us now, as there is nothing doing on the road. I have received notice to-day that my services are no longer required by the company, and a few others who were at different times before the officers of the company while acting as representatives of the organization have been let go also."

The insolent and arrogant corporation had actually asserted its right to manage its own affairs, and had had the audacity to dispense with the services of Mr. Lee and other Knights who had "been promoting the best interests of their own organization" by attempting to put it in charge of the company's business. Powderly at once replied in a letter, dated August 2, which displays him as a strategist of no mean order. After advising Lee to avoid a strike at that time at all hazards, because the company was never so well prepared for it, he says:

"Caution your men to continue as before, make no noise, no stir, or show of strength, and, if possible, act on the following suggestion: You have in the order a number of young men who would just as lieve take Horace Greeley's advice and 'go West' as not; select a number of these who would be willing to take positions elsewhere; have them correspond with our brothers and sisters in the West and secure positions there; then have them go one by one to their superintendent and ask for higher wages, shorter hours, better conditions, or, in fact, anything that may be required by the employees of the road. Their demands will be refused, of course, and then let them state that they are unwilling to work for such a corporation when they can better themselves. When a number of good men quit in that manner it will cause the company to think that it will not do to trifle with them, and prevent the discharge of other men.

"*This you must do secretly, and by all means postpone and keep back all indications of trouble until the return of Mr. Depew from Europe. Remember that he is a possible candidate for the Presidency, and will go to any lengths, where his own personality is concerned, rather than have a strike on his road, for that would injure his chance irreparably.*"

Perhaps Mr. Depew will enjoy reading that closing passage when he arrives from Europe this week. It is not the first hint that has been made that the Knights had been using his Presidential aspirations as a basis for getting control of the affairs of the railway of which he is the President, undermining the discipline of its employees, and honeycombing its service with "politics" in its worst and most dangerous form.

But Powderly was unable to hold the strike back till Mr. Depew returned, though he made a final appeal to Lee on August 6, two days before the strike was ordered, and in it he let a very large cat out of the bag by saying:

"Brother Lee, it is madness for the men of the New York Central to think of striking. They cannot win, and you know it as well as I do. Only the enthusiastic who never count the cost will say that a strike on a system of railways can succeed in these days.

"The New York Central management know that if organization can be kept up among the men until the World's Fair, they will not be able to refuse the men any just concession. They desire to break your power before you have succeeded in organizing other roads, and with a defeat now they know that the chances for a reorganization before 1893 is an impossibility, and that the men will always be at their mercy.

"*The year 1892 will be Presidential year, 1893 the World's Fair, but the patience of the workingman will not hold out to remain organized quietly while doing his part to organize other parts so that they will be as one man when these years come.*"

It is very plain from this deliverance that the Central Railway, by its prompt and vigorous course, has suppressed not merely a conspiracy against its own management, but a far larger one against all the railways of the country for 1892 or 1893. In the same way that he was counting on Mr. Depew's Presidential aspirations for success on the Central, Powderly was counting on the political influences of a Presidential year, and on the greatly increased demands of travel for the World's Fair, for success in a great "tie-up" in 1892 or 1893. The country owes a vote of thanks to the Central management, and to Mr. Webb in particular, for the crushing defeat they have administered to this pernicious creature. They had the sagacity to discover the conspiracy in its inception, and the courage and shrewdness to fight it in the most deadly way. Lee's letters are ample proof of this, and ample justification. The company fortified itself at every point. It not only discharged the conspirators at the moment when their work was in its most critical state, but it secured protection in advance, which enabled it to overcome easily all attempts to carry through by violence what had failed by conspiracy. Mr. Webb's precaution in engaging in advance the services of Pinkerton men was one of the wisest as well as most justifiable steps taken. The company had the best of reasons for mistrusting the public spirit of the police authorities at Albany, and the event justified their mistrust. When they were called upon to protect the company's property, they failed, and it was then that the engaged Pinkerton force was used, and not till then. If they had not been secured in advance, the great advantage of a prompt display of force by the company would have been lost.

FEDERAL OWNERSHIP OF RAILWAYS.

THE recent strikes have revived some discussion of the question of Federal ownership of railways. Under this title, Prof. Ely, in the *Independent*, makes a severe criticism upon our present system. It is comparatively easy to do this, for our system, as we all know, is vulnerable at many points. But whether a change of ownership would not be for the worse is not to be decided merely by a statement of grievances, however ably done. Some of Prof. Ely's criticisms are applicable to all business: for example, that advertising and solicitation cause large and unnecessary expenditures each year. So it is often stated that travelling salesmen add greatly to the expenses of merchants; but if these and other outlays were abolished, would prices to consumers be any lower? All our experience answers, in the long run no. Competition must be our main reliance for price and quality in trade, and competition is yet active—too active—in transportation. When all our roads are combined in one huge system, it will be time enough to take up the new question; at present there is no prospect of it. The consolidations of which we hear so much are not of competitive roads or systems, but such as make existing systems more compact and, indeed, more competitive. To combine the Chicago and Atlantic with the Erie is one thing; to amalgamate that road with the Lake Shore or with the Pennsylvania would be quite another—a point too much lost sight of.

But more questions can be suggested in a column than can be discussed adequately in a book, and space forbids our following Prof. Ely into the general subject. One part of it deserves a word or two, and that is the relation of a railroad's earnings to its expenses. Prof. Ely very properly speaks of a large number of the deaths and injuries upon our American roads as unnecessary, and so in a sense they are, for money could remove the causes of most of them. "Appliances for the protection of employees are inexpensive, comparatively," says the Professor. It is to be regretted that our writers upon railroad matters are for the most part unfamiliar with the operating of railways as a business. We do not find these economists making general assertions about the conduct of blast-furnaces; why should not a study of details be as necessary in transportation? Now, there are in the United States in round numbers one million freight and work-cars without improved couplers and air-brakes. To put these improvements upon these million cars would cost about $80 each, a round total of eighty millions of dollars. This is a sum as large as all the dividends paid by all our roads in 1889. And this is only one item. "Accidents and deaths at railway crossings are entirely needless," continues the Professor. True enough; but how are these deaths to be prevented? Only by the abolition of such grade crossings, by carrying the railway under or over all common roads and streets. What this would cost it is impossible to state in exact figures; it is, however, an underestimate to put the sums required by all of Prof. Ely's conditions as equalling our present railroad capitalization. English railways have no grade crossings, have an elaborate and expensive system of interlocking signals, and the like; but railways in America cost $60,000 per mile, and in England (partly because of

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Parliamentary expenses) between three and four times as much. We can in the United States have every improvement for the safety of men and trains if we will pay for it.

Neither Government nor private owners can draw from a railroad's treasury more money than there is in it. These enormous expenditures—dismissed in a sentence or two in the *Independent* articles—if insisted upon, must be met otherwise than from present earnings, for present earnings are limited by the present rates imposed upon the traffic. In England the freedom from accidents at crossings is secured by the much larger capitalization; the returns upon this larger capital being obtained by freight charges on the average about three times higher than our own. Private owners cannot be expected to double the cost of their roads so long as rates will not pay interest on the increase, though improvements should be made as profits grow larger. If the Federal Government should be the owner, the same problem would confront it. The expenditures could not, under the conditions, be met from the present receipts, and the only result would be additional taxation. "Charges for traffic should be high enough to pay all expenses and make payments to sinking funds." If the experience of Germany, France, and England goes for anything, charges high enough to cover returns upon our increased capitalization (under the higher standard of construction called for) must be double those now collected. Will the Western corn-grower consent to this? And if not, shall we tax users and non-users of railroads alike for the deficiency? For at least, under our present plan, our railroads are supported by collecting tolls from each one in exact proportion to the services rendered; while under our cheaper construction of plant, these freight rates in the United States are the lowest in the world. Really it is a question of finance, whether under Federal or private ownership. We cannot eat our cake and have it.

It is stated in the articles referred to that the sentiment in favor of Government ownership is growing, because favored alike by Farmers' Alliances and Knights of Labor. True, but for directly contrary reasons. The Knights want higher pay, and the farmers lower freights. Who would make up the certain deficit? Suppose that both these classes succeeded, and that a combination of Congressmen from the wheat, corn, and cotton States with those from labor States, knowing that their political future depended upon it, compelled the payment of higher wages and at the same time the reduction of rates on these staples to reach the seaboard and foreign markets. How would the farmers east of the Mississippi like to see the values of their farms, already low, brought still lower by a reduction in rates on competitive products from the trans-Mississippi States, while at the same time taxes are laid upon them, directly or through the Custom-house, to make up for interest upon the Government bonds issued for purchase and improvement, and perhaps also for actual excess of operating expenses over earnings? One of the writers in the *Independent* apparently has fallen into exactly this error. He says, speaking of Government operation of railways: "The nation has already done the thing proposed. The nation appoints a 'receiver.' In many instances such men are now carrying on railroads more successfully than their owners carried them on. They make both ends meet, as their owners could not." Usually receivers make both ends meet by not paying bond-interest and other debts which were obligations upon the owners; so in the case of Government ownership, an increase in the tax budget may not be counted in when considering the question of success, exactly as the increase of the budget in England is sometimes ignored in discussing Government telegraph in that country. The point involved in this discussion is simple—that, admitting the faults of our present system, the remedy is largely a problem of ways and means with which the question of Federal ownership is not necessarily connected.

AUSTRIAN PERPLEXITIES.

It is easy to speak of Austria in a despairing strain, and it has been so for centuries; yet perhaps never before in the history of her endless strifes of nationality with nationality has their hopeless character been so manifest as at the present time, when the "reconciliation" triumphantly effected last January is shown to be, as indeed it was predestined to be, a complete failure. That the task was attempted at all was due solely to the initiative of Francis Joseph, but even his imperial authority and great personal popularity could give force only for six months to the covenant entered into between the Germans and the Czechs—that is to say, between Count Taaffe, the Austrian Premier, whose boast it is that he is able to govern without the Germans; the Liberal Germans, who would, if they could, govern without the Czechs, and who hate Taaffe; and the conservative Old Czechs, who hate alike the Liberal Germans and the radical Young Czechs.

The septuagenarian leader of the Czechs, Dr. Rieger, has experienced the mortification of being disowned by a large class of his countrymen, in whose behalf he has labored so long, and in whose interest he offered the concessions to the German element of Bohemia, which alone made the January conferences possible. He has wearily resigned his leadership; but, as a last patriotic offering, he has undertaken a pilgrimage to Vienna, in order to induce Count Taaffe to undo the work of those conferences and begin anew the task of reconciliation between the Germans and the Czechs. In vain—thus he is said to have pleaded before the Austrian Premier—did the compact entered into six months ago provide for the equality of the German and Czech languages in Bohemia, one or the other of which had been made the official medium, according to the preponderance of the German or Czech element in the various districts. Nothing but the exclusive reign of the Czech, as the official language of the subjects of the crown of St. Wenceslas, would definitively satisfy his countrymen. Count Taaffe, according to the usually well-informed Prague *Bohemia*, is said to have expressed his willingness to accede to this demand, provided the Czechs would guarantee that it should be their last, and that the Germans of Bohemia would consent to a reopening of negotiations. The obvious objections to this plan are that the Germans, having faithfully kept their part of the agreement, can see no reason for entering into a new one; and that even if they did, they could not be sure that the Czechs would remain satisfied for a longer period than another six months. The Young Czechs, moreover, utterly refuse to recognize Herr Rieger as their spokesman, and openly proclaim adhesion to "Bohemian State right," *i. e.*, complete autonomy similar to that of Hungary, as their programme. This condition of things is at last beginning to attract the serious attention of the Hungarians, who, as a rule, are rather indifferent to the internal quarrels of Cisleithania. The *Pester Lloyd* in particular, which, although printed in German, is thoroughly Magyar in its tendencies, admonishes the Government, in view of the faithlessness of the Czechs, to restore the Germans in Bohemia to the position from which they were "forcibly ousted."

The party wrangles which perplex the Austrian Government are naturally not without their bearing on the foreign relations of the empire. In a conversation with the editor of the *Correspondance Slave*, Herr Rieger is quoted as having traced the origin of the January conferences to the influence of Germany, who until recently had abstained from interfering in Austrian affairs, but is now beginning to consider the Slavic policy of Count Taaffe as in some measure a menace to her own interests. Some color was lent to this theory by the ostentatious manner in which the Emperor William, during his last visit at the Austrian Court, snubbed Count Taaffe, while bestowing marked attention on Herr von Tisza, the late Hungarian Premier; but whatever the truth of Herr Rieger's assumption, it is certain that the newspapers of Germany are commenting upon the turn of affairs in Bohemia in a tone of increasing interest and concern.

Quite recently, too, an incident occurred in the Tyrol which illustrates the difficulties the Austrian Government is encountering in dealing with its disaffected subjects. The new Governor of that province, Count Merveldt, signalized his accession to office by dissolving an educational organization of Italian-speaking Tyrolese known as "Pro Patria," which was in affiliation with the Roman association "Dante Alighieri," supposed to harbor anti-Austrian sentiments. This act of the Tyrolese Governor was seized upon by the opposition party in Italy as a pretext for making an anti-Austrian issue and a protest against the Triple Alliance. Ricciotti Garibaldi's resignation of his seat in the Chamber of Deputies afforded the opposition party an opportunity of carrying this sentiment actively into politics, and Signor Barzilai, a former journalist, who,

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while in Trieste, had come in conflict with the Austrian authorities, was chosen as their standard-bearer. The Government party opposed to him Count Antonelli, a nephew of the former Papal Secretary of State, and although, after a most exciting contest, Antonelli was elected, he received but 5,362 votes, against Barzilai's 4,519. So large a vote cast by Italians on an anti-Austrian issue was a most unpleasant reminder to the Austrian Government of the vitality of the Irredentist movement, and of the necessity of employing caution in dealing with its Italian-speaking subjects.

Where race antagonism is complicated with religious fanaticism, as in the struggle between the Liberal Germans and the Slovenish clergy of Carinthia and Carniola during the recent elections to the local diets, there is less excuse for want of decision on the part of the Government. Then the political agitation descends to incredible depths. The Vienna *Deutsche Allgemeine Zeitung* relates that during an altercation between a Liberal landed proprietor and the priest of Tainach, in Carinthia, the latter suddenly attacked his antagonist with a knife, and, when a peasant attempted to interfere, with the exclamation, "How dare you threaten with a knife! Is the one murder at Arnoldstein not sufficient for you?" the priest turned his fury against him. But such excesses are merely the logical outcome of the anti-Semitic agitation which disgraces the Reichsrath and the municipality of Vienna under the very eyes of the Imperial Government.

Austrian Liberals may well look with serious misgivings on the future, as they reflect that the time cannot be far distant when the conservative hand which for more than forty years has guided Austrian affairs will be no longer at the helm. Francis Joseph, who has passed his sixtieth year, has endeared himself to his subjects by his unaffected simplicity, his capacity for hard work, his dignified bearing in misfortune; and the late Crown Prince Rudolph, in spite of his vices, shared in his popularity. But little is known of the probable heir to the throne, the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the son of the Emperor's brother, Karl Ludwig, who, it is understood, will not avail himself of the right of succession. The names of Franz and Ferdinand have an ominous sound in Liberal ears, and their bearer is popularly supposed to have inherited the bigotry of the late Duke of Modena together with his millions.

Nothing would be more fallacious than to conclude from this survey of Austrian affairs that the empire is tottering to its ruin. There is safety in the very multiplicity of its problems. Czechs, Germans, Poles, Ruthenians, Magyars, Slovaks, Serbs, Italians, and Slovens, Liberals, Feudalists, and Clericals may wrangle, but they cannot part company. The Slavic tribes still prefer German arrogance to Russian despotism, and Vienna, in spite of the enthusiastic welcome to the singers from the German fatherland, has no wish to become a provincial city of United Germany. Fortunately, the Austrians possess at bottom an inexhaustible fund of *Gemüthlichkeit*—a disinclination to borrow trouble, a capacity for living, politically as well as otherwise, from hand to mouth; and all, the Magyars excepted, are proud of their Kaiserstadt. And Vienna consoles itself for the gigantic growth of Berlin, the threatened commercial rivalry of Buda-Pesth, the unpatriotic refusal of the Vienna Vororte to be merged in the municipality of the metropolis, with its beautiful Ringstrasse, its unsurpassed Burgtheater, its brilliant newspapers, its splendid cafés, and its excellent eating. To-day, as when Schiller wrote his famous distich, and in days long before his, no matter what the political complexion of the empire, Vienna enjoys a "perennial Sunday."

THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY.

LONDON, August, 1890.

No library in the world offers better facilities to investigators than that of the British Museum. Foreigners who have worked there value its advantages even more than Englishmen themselves. During the past twelve years the Library has undergone many changes which have greatly increased its usefulness. The introduction of the electric light in 1879 extended the number of hours per day during which the reading-room (the chief working-room of the reading public) is open. In 1881 the printing of the great Catalogue was begun. This vast undertaking is rapidly progressing, most of the entries comprehended in the letters A—K and V—Z being now in print. A number of useful special catalogues have been published, notable among which are a Subject-Index of works received in the Library during the past five years (1885); a catalogue of about 18,000 books in the lower gallery of the reading-room, comprising works most frequently ordered by readers (1886); and a third edition of the List of Books of Reference in the Reading-Room (1889).

The preface of the last-mentioned work contains a good short history of the Library, together with some interesting statistics concerning the reading-room. It states that 103,971 persons used the Library in 1873; in 1888 the number had increased to 188,432, a rise in the daily average from 356 to 620. The opening of the newspaper-room in 1885 absorbed an average of 39 readers daily. The new manuscript-room also diverted many from the overcrowded reading-room. There has been an increase in the average number of books demanded by each reader; in 1873 the number was three, while at present it is four. The above-mentioned preface concludes as follows:

"By the introduction of electric light, the great extension of the working hours, and the increased facilities afforded both for ascertaining and for readily procuring the best books on every subject, it may fairly be claimed that the reading-room has not failed to keep pace with the growing requirements of the 188,000 readers who visited it in 1888."

This account of the progress of the reading-room has nothing to say concerning certain regulations made during the last five years, which seem to be decidedly out of harmony with the liberal spirit displayed by the authorities of the British Museum in former years. In 1886 or 1887 a regulation was made prohibiting the use of manuscripts in the reading-room, unless special permission was obtained for every manuscript or collection of manuscripts used. This innovation aimed either to secure the better preservation of the manuscripts, or to decrease the attendance in the overcrowded reading-room, perhaps both. The former end might have been secured either by reserving a table in the reading-room for the use of manuscripts, or by increasing the number of rare manuscripts inaccessible in the reading-room. As for the other presumable object of this new rule, it is doubtful whether the latter has diminished the attendance in the reading-room. If a person wishes to refer casually to a manuscript, he generally retains his seat in the reading-room while visiting the manuscript-room. If, on the other hand, a person uses manuscripts exclusively or largely, he prefers to be in the manuscript-room from the outset: no rule is needed to keep him out of the reading-room. The present arrangement apparently benefits no one, and it presses heavily upon the historical scholar who has to collate manuscripts with printed books, or who wishes to look up occasional references to manuscripts. Every time that he meets with such a reference he must either waste many precious minutes in visiting the manuscript-room, or he must appeal in writing to the head of the manuscript department for permission to consult the parchment in the reading-room.

Another rule of recent origin reads as follows: "Owing to the increasing numbers of readers, seats in the reading-room cannot be reserved. Should readers be absent for more than one hour from the seats which they have taken, such seats will be considered available for incoming readers." Readers are often necessarily absent from their seats more than an hour while in the reading-room itself consulting the catalogue and books of reference. Sometimes, in the course of his work in the reading-room, a reader finds it necessary to spend an hour in the newspaper-room, the manuscript-room, or the large room (reserved for rare books). It is very inconvenient for him to give up and then redraw all his books every time that he finds it expedient to make such transient investigations in other parts of the building. Moreover, it is very difficult to enforce such a rule, because the attendants cannot generally tell whether a seat has been vacant an hour or not. Conscientious readers who observe this rule are greatly inconvenienced, especially historical students using a wide range of sources; while literary triflers, tippling penny-a-liners, who spend a large part of the day in the neighboring Plough, or other public house, may break the rule with impunity.

I subjoin two more regulations of recent origin:

"Very great difficulty in supplying books from the Library is occasioned by an abuse of the privilege allowed to readers to have several volumes at one time. It is desired that order tickets placed in the baskets will be strictly limited to works required for immediate use."

"Readers cannot as a rule be supplied with novels written within five years of publication; and any reader requiring for special purposes to consult a recent novel, must state his reason in writing."

The first of these rules probably does neither harm nor good. The second may have become necessary, owing to the presence of certain readers (mainly ladies) who came to the Library merely to read the latest novels. But it is questionable whether they feel the new rule more than certain scholars who make legitimate literary use of recent works of fiction.

The trouble is that the reading-room and its corps of employees have become too small. The main purpose of the new regulations is to make more room for bona-fide scholars. It is doubtful whether this end has been secured. The new rules do more harm than good; they are more irksome to industrious investigators

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than to the motley crowd of idlers and loungers that infests the reading-room. The general tendency of these regulations is to restrict the freedom of the best class of readers. The pre-eminent excellence of the British Museum over other libraries of Europe used to be (and perhaps still is) the very liberal spirit of its regulations, the great freedom allowed to readers, the admirable facilities afforded for investigation in every field of learning. It is to be regretted that the policy of the Library seems to be slowly drifting away from the old standard of unrestricted freedom. The overcrowding of the reading-room should, if possible, be remedied by other expedients. One of the principal officials of the British Museum* recently admitted that "it is perhaps only from the acquisition of additional space for building purposes that any relief can be looked for in the future."

VENICE AND LIBERTY.

LENDINARA, August, 1890.

IT is some years since I have spent sufficient time in Venice to note in detail the changes for the better effected, but this year I have been able to do so and with real satisfaction. The vital question of the "conservation of the Lagoon," which the Venetian republic treated as a question of life or death, has been successfully resolved by the united forces of the State, the province, and the municipal authorities. As the old "conservators" put it, the safety of the Lagoon depends (1) on the width and depth of the ports, *i. e.*, the spaces between the long dunes or Lidi which divide the Lagoon from the Adriatic Sea so that the tides can ebb and flow freely at their natural will; (2) on the depth and width of the internal canals. When the ports are neglected, no large ships or steamers can enter the canals; when these are obstructed by the introduction of the refuse of the city, the drifting of soil from the islands, or the sands of the sea, or the mud of the drains, the ships get stranded, the air fouled, and, sooner or later, the city would be no longer "ocean's nursling," but an inland town surrounded by mud and marsh, malaria and desolation. Without entering into the much vexed question of the immission of fresh water rivers into the Lagoon, it suffices that the necessity of their exclusion is now universally accepted. In 1880 the Italian Parliament voted 1,000,000 lire for the excavation of the Port of Lido. This proved to be insufficient, and another million was assigned; but this also was not sufficient for the dykes and counter dykes—the sea depth to be eight metres, that of the internal canal ten metres. The Naval Secretary, Benedetto Brin, affirmed that, anxious as he was to promote the prosperity of the arsenal, he could not conscientiously give commissions for ironclads to be constructed there until assured that the vessels, completed and armed, could pass through the grand canal of Malamocco, necessitating nine to ten metres minimum depth. So the provincial and communal authorities and the Chamber of Commerce united their energies to those of the State, and in the arsenal of Venice have been constructed and thence launched the splendid ironclads *Sicilia* and *Morosini*—the former the longest, the latter the second in length, of the first-class war ships of the Italian Navy. The port of Venice is classed in the first category with regard to the military defence and safety of the State. It is also one of the three great naval departments into which Italy is divided, Naples and Spezia forming the other two. And as in Leghorn is centred the academy for the education of naval officers (the royal naval schools of Genoa and Naples have been closed), so in Venice is centred the royal naval school for naval-machine officers and stokers.

The High School of Commerce, so called, though it serves chiefly for the education of consular agents, is flourishing in its splendid residence of Ca Foscari, whence I witnessed, at the invitation of the new "Liberal" syndic, a capital regatta, the rowers almost all new men, while the old prize-winners served as umpires and told, half sadly, of the days when they, too, were young and strong. The Society of the Bucentoro put in a splendid appearance, with their gayly decked galleys, splendidly manned and rowed, keeping order along all the Grand Canal from the railway station to the Public Gardens, and clearing the way quite as effectually, and certainly in politer fashion, than the firemen, who pumped water on the few unlucky gondoliers who ventured near the winning-posts.

The great cotton factory, founded with Italian capital, is a somewhat incongruous building for Venice; but as it is erected on the banchina of Santa Maria, it does not intrude itself on the eye. It is so far successful, and a proof that the Venetians have not lost their old zest for industry as well as art. The "art of glass" flourishes in its native home, Murano, where I revisited the old works of the Venetian Murano Company, to find, alas! but one old acquaintance among the masters. The good old Abate Zanette, who, as director of the Industrial Artistic Museum of Murano, did so much to procure specimens and promote the study of the lost methods of the art of glass, is dead, but his nephew, now director of the V. M. glass-works, seems to inherit his artistic sense and certainly his passion for the lovely art.

The repairs of the grand old cathedral San Donato are completed, and, joy of joys, so are the restorations of St. Mark's and those of the Ducal Palace. The eternal scaffoldings are removed; the repairs, skilfully executed, have not marred the old-world beauty of the columns and façades, though whether they will have Mr. Ruskin's approval, none can venture to say. He has already most severely abused the steamers, water omnibuses, and what they call "trams," which, quitting the bridge at the station every quarter of an hour, touch at every landing place, and put you down at the Public Gardens, all for one cent (ten centimes); but these modern conveyances not only increase the traffic of the city, but add health and strength to the people. For six cents another set of steamers take to and from the Lido the poor people of Venice, who frequent the popular baths in the open sea; bathing-dresses, sheds, and attendance all included. And they go in shoals, enjoy the sea and sandy shores and their frugal breakfast under the trees which have grown bravely near their baths. Once, with my party of two boys and two girls, who had passed their hard "exams" with full "prizes and gold medals," we went with "the people," and enjoyed the bath better than those at the grand establishment, where you have to wait and scramble often for more than an hour. Special omnibuses also convey the sick poor children, affected by scrofula, of Venice proper and other communes of the province to the baths, and, after a fortnight of sea-water, fresh air, and good food, the beneficial effects are visible. Not only for these "miserables" does the city take thought. The new laws on public health are strictly applied; the death-rate diminishes annually, and the reports show that the city stands third on the list of healthy cities in Italy. Cholera and smallpox have made their ravages, but the latter disease is being sturdily grappled with.

The energetic measures taken to combat the terrible scourge of northern Italy, the pellagra, are gradually but surely producing beneficent effects. With the exception of the city and district of Venetia proper, Chioggia and Cavarzere, the entire province was devastated. Among the agricultural populations entire families were afflicted. It is now generally admitted that the prime cause of the disease is the exclusive use of maize, eaten at morning, noon, and evening, plainly boiled with little or no salt, with no corrective of fish, fowl, flesh, eggs, or fruit, and often washed down with brackish, fetid water, the whole year through. The province of Venice, through its provincial council, nominated a commission to study the causes and possible remedies, insisting on the necessity of sub-commissions in all the communes. The report was highly lauded by the international jury of the Exposition held in Milan in 1887. The appalling misery of the agricultural population brought to light during the inquiry showed too clearly that the first cause was too universal to be attacked at its source, as to do this it would be necessary at least to feed all the children and young people on white bread and soup, and insure the purity of drinking-water. All that could be done was to enjoin on the districts most afflicted the establishment of temporary ambulances where those patients declared by the parish doctors to be tainted with pellagra could, by good diet for a certain time, be cured in the first stage. Once successfully battled with in this, the patients generally recover, though a return to their former misery in time leads to a relapse; but if only attacked in the second stage, the patients soon return to the temporary hospitals, and, after one more "outing," generally end in the madhouse. But of the fifty communes very few chose to go to the expense of the temporary hospital, although the department of the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce offered pecuniary assistance.

Now that the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate have agreed on the disputed points of the grand "reform bill of charitable institutions" which became law on the 15th of last July, enormous sums as well as large adaptable edifices and land will become the property of the respective communes and provinces. To what more beneficent use can these lapsed gifts of the pious testators be put than to the formation of temporary ambulances for the cure and prevention of this, one of the most terrible maladies to which northern Italian flesh is heir? Side-helps must come from better houses for the poor, drying-grounds for maize, economical baking-ovens, economical kitchens, shorter hours (seeing that every agricultural laborer works from sunrise to sunset, men, women, and children, the whole year, Sundays and holidays excepted), and higher wages when King Taxgatherer shall deign to render this possible; but meanwhile cure of the actual sufferers is the necessity of the moment, and the Venetian authorities, provincial and communal, are most praiseworthy for their efforts. The infant schools, of which there are seven in the city, where the very poorest children are received, housed, and fed during the day, are capital preventive aids in the case; everywhere these are gaining ground even as asylums for children whose mothers cannot suckle them, and for children being weaned. An attempt is also being made to improve the dwellings of the poor, while the improvements made in the interior of the city

* George Bullen, in List of Books of Reference in the Reading-Room, p. xxiv.

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are too numerous even to be indexed. Wide, well-paved streets, such as the "22 Marzo," the "Via Vittorio Emanuele," and the splendid esplanade leading from the Riva degli Schiavoni to the Public Gardens, have, without damaging a single artistic monument, added to the health and ease of traffic. Filth and bad smells have decreased, owing to the dredging and cleaning of the waterways and the constant work of the scavengers in carrying away the refuse of the city. And, despite the enormous sums spent for thus cleaning, lighting, and improving the city, the communal exchequer is by no means in the impecunious state of that of Rome, Naples, and other large cities of the peninsula. At the present moment, however, there is a general protest against the Minister of Finance, who demands an additional 150,000 lire for the dazio-consumo—the tax on food, etc., entering the city. The new Mayor and other authorities have left Venice for Rome, to implore the Government to desist from imposing fresh burdens on the population.

As I was concluding this letter, a hail-storm such as "the oldest inhabitant" cannot remember, came suddenly rattling over our heads, crashing the tiles and windows, ruining the not too-promising prospects of the vintage and the maize crop, just ready for plucking; but, to balance the disaster, the Bishop of Adria has organized a pilgrimage to the shrine of the famous miracle-working Madonna of Lendinara, around which wine-venders and fruit-sellers are plying a thriving trade. Taking advantage of a clause in the new law on public security, the clergy are everywhere organizing these pilgrimages to "holy shrines"; the bishops and priests preach, the chiefs of Catholic clubs "hold conferences," enjoining on the faithful fresh sacrifices for the "altar and the hearth." If at the next general elections the famous veto, "Neither electors nor elected," be revoked by Leo XIII., we shall see fresh results of "freedom wed with law." Yet I hold that none the less will all classes have cause to cry, *Viva la Libertà!* J. W. M.

THE TUSCAN MAREMME.—II.

NOCERA DI UMBRIA, August 15.

THE most striking difference in the emotions excited by the great fields of archæological interest in Greece and in Italy is, to me, that in the former we have the tradition continuous and the national life interrupted, while in the latter the life seems to have gone on in a more or less normal evolution, but with breaks of many centuries each in the traditions of national existence. We know the races that came into Greece from the Pelasgi down to the Slav, and archæologically we can reconstruct the map of ancient Greece, though our knowledge of the national life is very shadowy from a period a little later than Hadrian down, and until the modern revival of interest through classical study began to produce the neo-Hellenic movement; but when we come into Italy, we find ourselves in the presence of the proofs of a great and early civilization, probably centuries earlier than that of the Achaian epoch, and many times greater, of which we have not the slightest hint in tradition. The earliest legends tell us that the Siculi were the inhabitants of the peninsula when tradition began to form, and that the Pelasgi and Umbri, united, drove them out, so that they became thereafter only known as inhabitants of Sicily, where the great Greek immigration found them; but of what happened to the Pelasgi and Umbri afterwards legend does not inform us until the Raseni came in, about 1,000 B. C. The interval must have been one of many centuries, for the early Italic civilization which preceded the Etruscan, and which is shown in the massive and enormous city walls and the extensive cemeteries from the valley of the Arno down to the most southerly provinces of Italy, cannot have been the evolution of a few generations. A short residence in any Eastern country or in the most secluded regions of Italy will satisfy any observer that the rate of progress away from the great routes of commerce and travel is infinitesimally slow, and that, when not driven by foreign competition, the acquisition of a new art or the change of the form of a customary implement is the work of a century. I have seen the plough of Hesiod in use in the hills from which the Sabine founders of Rome migrated twenty-six centuries ago, and the axe of the Umbrian woodsman is only the steel copy of the bronze found in the necropolis by the archæological excavator. It is impossible to form any estimate of the lapse of time indicated by the evolution of an art in prehistoric times, and in lands out of the main lines of development, without studying a little the rates of progress in those which are similarly situated to-day; and that the great region of central Italy in which the Italic civilization was developed was utterly isolated from the civilization of the East, Mesopotamia, and Egypt, is made clear by the fact that not a trace of anything like letters, ideograms, etc., has ever been discovered, nor is there any positive evidence of commerce with the East till the arrival of the Raseni, or, as we commonly call them, Etruscans.

This was, according to both Helbig, who holds that they came from the north, and the Italian archæologists, who consider that they came (according to the classical tradition) from the coasts of Asia Minor, about 900 B. C., *i. e.*, between 800 and 1000. What was the Italic civilization prior to that? The walls of more than four hundred Pelasgic cities, most of which are out of the range of Etruscan domination, tell us something of it, and the recent finds in the Italian cemeteries are making new disclosures every day. In the Maremme and central Etruria, where both Pelasgian and Etruscan held high state, we see the work of the latter overlying that of the former as clearly as we see a secondary formation overlying a primary in geology, in the walls of those cities which they inhabited; as we find in Volterra and Fiesole, where the Etruscan alone has left his sign manual, and in Alatri, Arpino, and south, where only Pelasgic masonry is found, evidence of their utterly distinct existence. From Grosseto, the present capital of the Maremme (a mediæval town which took the place of Rusellæ, a city first Pelasgic, then Etruscan, then Roman, and which was finally destroyed by the Saracens), we may visit by an easy drive any one of a score, more or less, of sites where once were great cities, all of which were once Pelasgic, and most of which were also Etruscan, and whose aggregate points to a state of prosperity and populousness in this part of the peninsula such as nothing in history gives us any conception of. Yet of all these cities nothing is known until the Roman legend opens. The entire empire to which they first belonged has not even a tradition to mark its course and fall. The race to which we must attribute them has even become for generations a by-word and a perplexity, so that the philologists have declared them an illusion of mythology. But not one of the ancient authors omits them from the colonizing races of Greece and Italy, and we have their signatures in these indestructible walls from Tuscany to Asia Minor, and one who has studied this handwriting is as certain in its identification as an expert in chirography.

What their origin was is becoming tolerably clear from the collation of traditions and the comparison of the remains; what their end, if they had an end and not merely a change of name, is a profound mystery, as well as their relation to the Raseni, their probable successors. In his study, soon to be published, on the religion of the Etruscans, on which he has been engaged for more than twenty years, Professor Milani, the Director of the Etruscan Museum at Florence, puts forward the theory that the Pelasgi and the Raseni were allied peoples, branches of the same Asiatic race, originally coming from Lycia; the former migrating by land around the Gulf of Venice, which of course implies an immense ethnical movement, the latter by sea at a long subsequent period. This theory not only agrees with all that has been said with any precision by the ancient authors as to the migrations, but it accounts for what would be otherwise an inexplicable fact, viz., the apparent expulsion of the Pelasgi from so important a part of their old realm by the Raseni, without a trace of the revolution getting into the traditions which have recorded for us the immigration of both races; and it accords with the deductions to be drawn from the ruins of the cities and the results of the excavations recently made and going on. What is made as certain as anything of the kind can be, by these excavations, is, that the Italic world as it was before 1000 B. C., and leaving out of consideration Magna Græcia, was, not far from that time, invaded by two distinct colonizations, a Greek in what has since been known as the Latin country, and a Rasenic in the Etruscan. One of your correspondents last year described the Papa Giulio Museum at Rome, somewhat cursorily, but he missed the important lesson to be drawn from it, viz., that it proves the advent in the basin of the Tiber, about the period alluded to, of a Greek colony, which had its central seat at Falerii, and controlled, more or less, the character of the Italic development over the whole of the region tributary to the Tiber, its arts being recognizable as far as Alatri, and at distinctly Latin localities such as Antemnæ and Lanuvium, but never extending far to the north of Falerii. Here it was never interfered with by the Etruscans, whose work is scarcely and only incidentally to be found in that region. The earliest importations found there are archaic Attic, and the latest are pure Hellenic, the entire local art being founded on Greek traditions. This agrees with the early traditions, which relate that the city was founded by a colony from Argos, and that they built a copy of the Heræum in honor of the patroness of their native city.

I hope to recur to this collection when it is complete, and shall not discuss it further now; but I call attention to the fact that while this region was devoted to Greek influences, that lying to the north, which has as its approximate centre Chiusi, and to which Orvieto (Volsinii Urbs Vetus, the sacred city of the Etruscans, and their religious centre) also belongs, has an art which, though its roots, like those of all Etrurian art, are Greek, has the distinct and dominant Etruscan character. In fact, the more we examine the Etruscans through their work, the more it resolves itself into a compound of the Italic and the Greek. All their art of design was Greek by origin, and all their primitive civilization melts imperceptibly into the Italic, confirming what I have long felt to be the inevitable conclusion as to

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the Raseni, that they never constituted the mass of what are now considered the Etruscan nation, but that they were simply a dominant caste, few in numbers, as must have been the case with a sea-borne emigration, and imposing themselves on the Italic population by a superior knowledge of technical matters, and probably by the possession of certain religious mysteries, as we know that these in all ancient times conferred an immense prestige on newcomers in any land. The ready acquiescence of the Italic population (which must in the dominant elements have been the Pelasgo-Umbrian stock) in this political and religious pontificate of the new race, which was, after all, a kindred one, is thus accounted for. On Prof. Milani's theory this is what we might have expected to take place.

Among the cities which crown the heights that half encircle the plain of Grosseto, all of which belonged to this sphere of the Raseni and in which the influence of the Pelasgi only appears modified into what we have come to recognize as Etruscan, the chief, so far as its archæological revelations are concerned, is Vetulonia, whose site has recently been discovered on the hill of Colonna by Sig. Falchi, one of the scientific explorers of the Ministry of Public Instruction. Already two rooms in the Museum of Florence have been filled with the finds in the cemeteries which, if I may believe the account of one of the principal owners of the land on which they lie, extend for miles in every direction around the isolated and not easily accessible hill on the summit of which there may still be seen a remnant of the citadel; and, according to the same authority, there is work for generations in excavating them. Vetulonia seems from the ancient traditions to have been the most important of these cities in the period in which Rome came under the influence of the Etruscans, and from it the Romans derived some of their most important ceremonies, the fasces, the curule chair, etc. Its later history is a mystery, and it is not known how or when it fell; but in all probability it was before the power of Rome could have menaced it, and from gradual decay, as, if the subject of disaster by war, it must have entered into the legend of Rome in some way. The site is an impregnable one in the ancient system of warfare, and it took our carriage nearly an hour to climb the zigzag road that leads up to it. I forgot to take my anercid, and so can only guess at the height, but I believe it must be between 1,500 and 2,000 feet to the summit. It is not, like most of the Pelasgic cities, built on a rugged peak of the flinty limestone of the Apennines, but on a terraced hill of a sandstone of varying hardness, and the point on which the city stood is only the highest of an assemblage of spurs on each of which, extending down to the valley beneath, is a cemetery. In the valley towards the sea, my informant said, there was a tumulus that had not been yet opened (unless in ancient times, which does not seem probable, as the evidences of ancient robbing do not appear), but, which was so large that a farmhouse had been built on it, and it was estimated by the engineers that the expense of heaping it up in our day would be not less than $100,000.

We had hoped to find Falchi at work, but it was in the latter part of June, and he had finished work for the season. We visited the excavations in part, and certainly the abundance of graves was amazing. Some are of the Etruscan type—tumulus enclosed by a wall with a chamber built of hewn stone in the centre; but the greatest number by far are of the Italic type—well tombs—and had only contained hut-urns or vases of the form, approximately, of the hydria, with one handle, containing the bones in the small fragments made by thorough incremation, and covered with a peculiarly shaped dish of the same earthenware, with a handle which seems to have been fastened to that of the vase, and possibly sealed originally so as to prevent the opening of it without breaking the fastening. But the hut-urns are also very abundant—more so, apparently, than in any necropolis yet discovered; and the predominance of them over the Etruscan type shows that the city was great and populous long before the Italic civilization gave way to the innovations of the Raseni. The finds correspond with those of the Latin graves and those of the Basilicata, proving more clearly than ever before the uniformity of culture and technique of the Italic epoch to have been such as never obtained during the Etruscan. In some portions the earth was crowded as closely with the little graves as any country churchyard in England, the soil only covering the vase a foot or so.

But the contents of two or three of the tombs of the Etruscan epoch, now in the Museum at Florence, show that the wealth of the city must then have been great. The peasants of the locality had long ago found that there was treasure concealed under the surface of their fields, and, indeed, some of the tombs were beyond recognition by an inexperienced eye, so that there has been for a long time a system of contraband excavation by which some of the people had accumulated little fortunes unsuspected by the proprietors or authorities. Of course in this kind of search the more easily recognizable and the most sought for were the richer Etruscan tombs; the humbler and poor graves of the Italic period, the most interesting to the prehistoric archæologist, being passed by as of no account. It must be said, in passing, that the type of the grave does not necessarily imply greater antiquity, for it is almost certain that the original stock, of the poorer classes especially, would be so conservative as to retain the traditional form of burial for generations after the Etruscan was introduced, so that we shall have contemporary graves of both types. This was shown conclusively to be the case at Orvieto, where, after the conquest of the city by the Romans and the subjection of the higher and previously governing class to the servile population, probably the older, the form of interment immediately recurs to the earliest form known in the necropolis. This is shown by the objects found in the tombs, including Roman coins.

The disclosures at Vetulonia have, we may hope, only begun, and in the enormous extent of ground to be gone over we may get some precious find in the earlier field which to me is that of greatest interest. Nothing has yet been found in the well-tombs of this site which is to be compared for artistic interest to some of those found at Corneto, but the most of the well-tombs at Vetulonia are of slight depth, while those of Corneto are, the guardian of the cemetery there informed me, four or five metres deep in some cases, and had been covered over by subsequent interments of a different character. Some pieces of bronze work (weapons especially) are, however, of the most delicate workmanship yet discovered, and a dagger in the Museum of Grosseto is one of the most beautiful I have ever seen. Definite conclusions as to the prehistoric position of Vetulonia must be postponed till a later date, when the cemeteries have been much more thoroughly explored, but even now the site is the most important for the elucidation of the prehistoric problem of all that have been examined in Italy. The contrast between the Faliscan collection at the Papa Giulio Museum and the Vetulonian rooms at Florence will show at a glance the distinct character of the colonization of the two regions to which I have above alluded—the Italic basis in both cases, with in one the Greek superstructure, and in the other the Etruscan; so that it becomes clear that for all that the Italians, Raseni or Italo-Pelasgi acquired of art proper subsequent to the eighth or ninth century B. C., they were indebted to Greece. If, as I believe, the Pelasgic civilization began in Italy and flowed over to Greece and into the Greek Islands, Crete, etc., the reflex wave centuries later brought a new and higher form, resulting in part from contact with the East and in part from the finer artistic insight of the Greek nature. Etruscan art, so far as distinctly an art, is only a realistic degradation of Greek ideals, and in most cases is only poor imitation of Greek work.

But all conclusions on this subject must be taken with great reserve. The moment we get beyond the reach of epigraphy, all evidence assumes a new character, and the philologist generally abandons it in despair or derision. It demands new canons and is in effect a new science, for the determination of its facts depends on a class of evidence of which nothing has been made precise. Every new fact has, then, an importance for confirmation or modification of our conclusions which makes extreme caution imperative. But the evidence exists and is coming to cognizance, and I hope that in time the nature, sources, and origin of Italic civilization and its relation to Greek and Oriental will be as clear to us as are now some of those philological problems which were equally obscure half a century ago.

W. J. S.

Correspondence.

THE ART-TARIFF JUGGLE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Why doesn't your correspondent "G. B.," so ingenious in the finding of illustrations for his pet doctrine, take for a text the tariff on works of art?

We all know how it was enacted by a juggle in conference committee, and how, in spite of protests from artists and recommendations from Presidents, it has remained on the statute-book. Now one party has absolute control of both houses of Congress and of the Executive. The President recommends the abolition of this tax. What happens? The Ways and Means Committee votes first against free art, and then for it. The Tariff Bill passes the House with art on the free list. Then the Finance Committee of the Senate votes against free art, and art comes off the free list again. Now Mr. Sherman is reported as saying that the Finance Committee will "probably" change its mind. Nobody knows how it will go, and whether art is to be taxed or free, nobody will ever know who did it and nobody will be held responsible.

Surely "G. B." has "lost the opportunity of his life"! Yours truly, Casey.

September 4, 1890.

TWO VIEWS OF BENTHAM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Every student of jurisprudence who has had the good fortune to see the annual address delivered at the last meeting of the

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American Bar Association by Mr. James C. Carter of the New York bar, on the "Origin and Growth of Law," will have been interested in it as furnishing the most recent, and by no means the least vigorous, attempt to overthrow Austin's analysis of law. It may be doubted whether Mr. Carter's criticisms, able and ingenious as they unquestionably are, have not been anticipated and answered in Austin's own work and that of his followers. But, Austin apart, can it be said that the speaker was wise in characterizing Bentham as he did in an address aimed to encourage among lawyers an enlarged interest in the science of jurisprudence? Bentham, according to Mr. Carter, is to be "most accurately described by the vulgar designation of *crank*—a man who cherishes his pet theories in the solitude of his own contemplation, and disdains both the observation of the present and the study of the past." "We need look no further," he continues, "for the reason why his schemes have never recommended themselves to wise and practical legislators."

In view of so damaging an estimate from so eminent an authority, it may be well to recall some opinions at variance therewith. John Stuart Mill spoke of Bentham (Art. Bentham, 'Dissertations and Discussions') as "one of the two"– the other being Coleridge—"great seminal minds of England in their age," and of Bentham himself as "one of the great teachers and permanent intellectual ornaments of the race." Prof. Thomas Erskine Holland (Art. Bentham, 'Enc. Brit.') considers that Bentham's writings "have been and remain a storehouse of instruction for statesmen, an armory for legal reformers." "To trace," Prof. Holland continues, "the results of his teaching in England alone, would be to write a history of the legislation of half a century." Sir Henry Sumner Maine, who was certainly *not partial to the analytical school, in discussing* their work with special reference to Hobbes, Bentham, and Austin, says ('Early History of Institutions'), "No conception of law and society has ever removed such a mass of undoubted delusion." Sir James Fitzjames Stephen in one place ('Dig. Ev.') compares some of Bentham's books to exploded shells buried under the ruins they have made; and in another ('History of the Criminal Law of England') holds that Bentham's "theories upon legal subjects have had a degree of practical influence upon the legislation of his own and various other countries comparable only to those of Adam Smith and his successors." There is an impressive supplement to this last expression of opinion in Prof. Marshall's 'Principles of Economics,' where Bentham is rated as "the most influential successor of Adam Smith in the field of economics."

Yours truly, THOMAS H. CLARK.

MONTGOMERY, ALA., Sept. 1, 1890.

THE STACCATO CHEER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am curious to fix the date of the invention or discovery of the now current *staccato* cheer as distinguished from the orthodox *hurrah* thrice repeated, of former days. I am credibly informed that it was in use at Harvard prior to 1858. To my personal knowledge it was unknown at Yale as late as 1860. Shortly after the Civil War I heard it for the first time at some intercollegiate contest, and since then, as everybody knows, it has become common property. Possibly some Harvard graduate of 1858 or thereabouts may be able to fix the date and possibly name the inventor of this unique characteristic American cheer. —Respectfully yours,

CHAS. LEDYARD NORTON.

UNIVERSITY CLUB, NEW YORK, September 4, 1890.

SIR THOMAS WYATT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I ask through your columns whether the sonnet of Sir Thomas Wyatt opening with the line "Like unto these unmeasurable mountains" has been identified with any Italian original? Puttenham ascribed it to Petrarch, but Nott thought it belonged to Tibaldeo or Accolti. Also, for the original two *strambotti* of Serafino from which was imitated Wyatt's poem commencing "My heart I gave thee, not to do it pain." Also, whether any of the following are known to be translations, viz.:

(1.) Unstable dream, according to the place.

(2.) Each man tells me I change of my devise.

(3.) Was never file yet half so well yfiled.

(4.) Ye that in love find luck and sweet abundance.

(5.) My love to scorn, my service to retain.

(6.) Such is the course that nature's kind hath wrought.

(7.) The flaming sighs that boil within my breast.

(8.) Farewell, Love! and all thy laws for ever.

(9.) Whoso list to hunt? I know where is an hind.

(10.) Divers doth use, as I have heard and known.

(11.) I abide and abide, and better abide.

(12.) Though I myself be bridled of my mind.

(13.) To rail or jest, ye know I use it not.

(14.) But you that of such like have had your part.

I may mention for any whom it may interest, that the sonnet commencing "Avising the bright beams of those fair eyes" is a translation of Petrarch's "Mirando 'l Sol de begli occhi sereno." I do not know that this has been before identified. If so, it is certainly not generally known, for Dr. W. E. Simonds of Cornell University, in his 'Essay on Sir Thomas Wyatt and his Poems' (Boston, 1889), writes as follows: "*Avising the bright beams* is probably a translation, the first word in the sonnet being used evidently in the sense of the Italian *avvissare*, 'to look at attentively.' It seems likely that the word was suggested to the poet by the presence of the Italian word in the original of what we here conjecture to be a translation merely." Dr. Simonds's conjecture proves to be correct as regards the sonnet being a translation; but not as to the presence in the Italian original of the word "avising," though the meaning is nearly that suggested.

It is almost certain that more of Wyatt's sonnets are translations or imitations than the fifteen which have been identified, and, as they represent the first English sonnets, it would be as well to sift the matter as far as possible. Except Nott and Bell, no one seems to have gone far into the matter, and I beg to commend it to students of Elizabethan poetry, in the hope of obtaining further information than has been accessible to your obedient servant,

E. B. BROWNLOW.

No. 6 HUTCHISON ST., MONTREAL.

WORTH A CENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your remarks in last week's *Nation* on Émile Faguet, you speak of a *Western* expression: so and so "did not scare worth a cent." To my personal knowledge *worth a cent* in this and numerous other combinations has been current in this and other parts of the South for twenty-five or thirty years. I presume it would be difficult to trace the expression to any particular part of our country, if indeed it is an Americanism at all. In the same connection you express surprise at M. Faguet's using *obole* in very much the same way: "Voltaire n'a pas été artiste pour une obole." This use of *obole* is somewhat familiar, but is perfectly natural—smacks of French soil, so to speak, as it has six or eight centuries of history behind it. From the earliest period down to the present time, the names of small coins have figured very largely, both in North and South French literature, to set a low estimate upon any person or thing. In 'Huon de Bordeaux,' the hero says to the "amiral":

"Je ne sui mie en vostre deu crëans,
Ne pris Mahon le monte d'un besant."

And, a little further on, the amiral makes a similar remark:

". . . . je n'en feraï noiant,
Ne pris vo deu un denier valissant."

The last line may be rendered: Nor do I prize or care for your god worth a cent. And so in 'Girard de Roussillon': "No quier de raenz o valhan dinier." One is continually coming upon this expression both in Trouvère and Troubadour literature, and while there may not be any direct historical connection between it and M. Faguet's expression, it is evident that the idea has been in the social atmosphere of France all along, and might be expected to crop out at any time.

A curious and entertaining study might be made of the manner in which various peoples work up to the same idea, and frequently use exact verbal equivalents for its expression. For instance, the German says: "Ich gäbe keinen rothen Heller dafür," and in America we in the same spirit say: "I would not give a red (cent) for it." And so *unterschlagen*, to embezzle, finds its literal translation in our slang, 'to knock down'; *e. g.*, he gets ten dollars a week, to say nothing of what he *knocks down* from the drawer.

SAMUEL GARNER.

ANNAPOLIS, MD., August 31, 1890.

SOME CORRECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit a reader to call attention to two lapses from accuracy observed in No. 1309, July 31, of the *Nation*. The writer of the letter on Madame, mother of the Regent, confounds generations. It was not her father (then an infant) who suffered defeat at the battle of the White Mountain (1620), but her grandfather, Frederick V., who died in 1632. It was *his* son, Charles Louis, that was reinstated by the Peace of Westphalia, 1648.

On page 92, in a casual allusion to a *French* king, superior to the niceties of his own language, had not the writer in mind Sigismund of Bohemia, who declared himself "super Grammaticam"—in Latin construction, however? An anecdote, repeated only by hearsay, is told of French nobles of the *ancien régime*, chosen members of the French Academy, who took pains to misspell their signatures in a variety of ways to show that they were not subject to rules of petty scholarship. R. T.

PURDY'S, N. Y., September 2, 1890.

THE OLD TESTAMENT IN THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is, I believe, undeniable that few of those who have accepted the positions com-

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monly classed under the vague head of the Higher Criticism, realize the radical modifications which such opinions ought to render inevitable in the manner of teaching children the earlier historical—or, rather, unhistorical—books of the Old Testament. Of course, many persons—notably advanced Unitarians and others who have no deep personal sympathy with any of the phases religion has assumed—are not here alluded to. They have solved the problem, and, indeed, not always in the best way. My reference is only to those who are clinging—perhaps with hardly more than the nerveless grasp of regret—to New England Congregationalism and its ideas. These individuals gladly accept the light which Kuenen, Wellhausen, and others have thrown upon the growth of the Old Testament writings. They feel a delicious sense of relief in being rid for ever of the piteous problems about Abraham's bloody sacrifice and Pharaoh's hardened heart. They have even gone so far that they wonder a little when they hear the Hebrews spoken of as practically the authorized reporters of God's thoughts and acts. And yet not a few of these same persons go into an ordinary Sunday-school and teach the so-called "International" lesson of the day without any dangerous qualms of conscience. The particular passage may, of course, contain topics which make easy the pointing of useful morals. These the teacher will anxiously confine his attention to. He must skilfully control the questioning, else his youthful listeners may unconsciously ask him questions it would be hard to answer without directly assuming the historical character of the passage, and this his conscience, such as it is, will not allow him to do, though he is in effect doing it indirectly all the time. His undiscriminating little audience never suspects that the exact amount he teaches is all he wishes them to believe. Their impression is scarcely different from what it would be did he teach every bit of the story, doubtful statements and all, and he is responsible, whether his conscience blinks the fact or not. The credulity of the child is grossly abused by such a teacher.

Not a few of the children taught in this disingenuous way are attacked by serious doubts as they grow older. How many are wise enough to discern what is true when everything seems to them to be brought into question! To some this time of disillusionment may prove fatal, so far as all real religious faith is concerned; and it is bewildering to even the steadiest mind to make the discovery that what one has always thought to be true, and what one fears to disbelieve, is, to say the least, very uncertain. But why need there be any disillusionment? Why may not children be so taught that their intellectual growth on its religious side will be rarely in danger of becoming a series of upheavals? Probably the whole trouble would in a large measure be obviated if teachers were earnestly careful, first, never to teach, or *seem* to teach, what they do not heartily and voluntarily believe; and, second, to give the children correct impressions of the Scriptural narratives. But how can this last be done? Certainly not by reading the boys and girls lectures on the Higher Criticism. On the contrary, it may be accomplished by taking intelligent advantage of the psychological principle of association of ideas.

No boy or girl is seriously disturbed when the heroes of fairy tale, legend, and myth turn out to be hardly more than pretty pictures. It follows, therefore, that the Hebrew stories should be treated as you treat the Greek, Roman, and Scandinavian. Tell them in such a way that the child will never grow to feel that the question of the actuality or non-actuality of their occurrence is a *religious* question, on which sides ought to be taken. Constantly relate similar tales from other literatures so that the child will feel towards all such stories in a similar way. Then, when the fairy tales, the myths, and the legends cease to seem to the children descriptions of real events and actual persons, the Hebrew stories will undergo a similar transformation. Having never been led to feel that those who believe in God must also believe in the Mosaic authorship of the Pentateuch, they will not be tempted to doubt the existence of God because they hear the existence of Abraham, and the patriarchs in general, treated as a very open question. To conclude the whole matter, why shall we not have the courage of our convictions and act intelligently about them? B. E. H.

Notes.

THE Messrs. Longman have in press 'Letters and Correspondence of John Henry Newman during his Life in the English Church,' with a brief autobiographical memoir, edited by J. B. Mozley, D.D.

Macmillan & Co. will publish next month 'The Fossil Insects of North America,' by Samuel H. Scudder, in two quarto volumes freely illustrated, the edition being limited to one hundred copies. They have nearly ready 'The Myology of the Raven, a Guide to the Muscular System of Birds,' by Dr. R. W. Shufeldt; and an English translation, by Dr. Geo. McGowan, of Prof. Ernst von Meyer's 'History of Chemistry.'

A new and original work on 'Evolution,' by David Syme of Melbourne, is promised by Kegan Paul & Co. London.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a volume of essays by Bishop Spalding of Peoria.

Thomas Whittaker will publish 'The Writers of Genesis, and Related Topics,' by the author of 'God in Creation,' etc.

'Eastward, or a Buddhist Lover,' a novel, will have the imprint of the J. G. Cupples Co., Boston.

Jules Verne has made America the scene of his latest impossible romance, 'Cæsar Cascabel,' which the Cassell Publishing Co. are to bring out during the present season. The hero is a travelling showman.

'House and Pet Dogs: Their Selection, Care, and Training,' and 'The Spaniel and Its Training,' will be issued immediately by the *Forest and Stream* Publishing Co.

Dr. David F. Lincoln's 'Hygienic Physiology for the Use of Grammar and Common Schools,' which is set down for publication this month by Ginn & Co., Boston, has to recommend it, besides the reputation of the author, the arrangement of topics, hygiene preceding the anatomy and physiology. This is the natural order of presentation for young minds.

D. C. Heath & Co. will add to their Modern Language Series 'Selections for German Composition,' by Prof. Charles Harris of Oberlin.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, N. Y., are about to bring out the work we have already announced, 'My Journey Over the Mountains,' edited by J. M. Toner, M.D. This is Washington's Journal of 1747, which will now be printed entire for the first time, and literally, with explanatory notes.

The revised edition of Dr. Japp's 'Life of De Quincey' (London: James Hogg), previously issued under the pseudonym "H. A. Page," professes to be "almost a new book," with new letters, reminiscences, etc. There is really less new matter than might be expected from such a statement. Very considerable portions of the former biography have been cut out, consisting mainly of extracts from the autobiographical papers of De Quincey or from his comments on men he had known, which are to be found in his works. The author's critical survey also is much shortened, largely by similar omissions of illustrative passages. In this compression nothing has been lost. The new letters are very few in number and unimportant in matter, and the new reminiscences are partly gathered from other books or may be found there in substance; nevertheless, great care has been taken to collect in this volume all the notices of De Quincey by those who met with him, whether hitherto printed or not. These recollections serve only to fill out characteristics already sufficiently known, and make the biography more ample and in some cases more exact, but without affecting in any sensible way De Quincey's reputation. The most important matter, which alone calls for notice, is the frank admission that De Quincey took sanctuary in Holyrood through fear of creditors, and lived there some two years; but it is maintained that he was never in real poverty or bankruptcy, but only deficient in the ability to manage business affairs. New portraits of De Quincey, Prof. Wilson, and Sir W. Hamilton, and a view of Greenhays Hall, are given. The edition is in one volume, too closely printed and insecurely bound; but it is a great improvement upon the former biography, and may, we suppose, be regarded as final.

'Short Studies of Shakespeare's Plots,' by Prof. Cyril Ransome (Macmillan), is published in the interest of a more direct and enlightened study of Shakspere in schools. The author protests against a textual study of the plays after the fashion that obtains in classical teaching, and writes in favor of treating them merely as literature. He thinks it of the first consequence to disclose the course of the plot and the superficially obvious development of the characters in their actions and words, and to this end he analyzes "Hamlet," "Julius Cæsar," "Macbeth," "Lear," "Richard II.," "Othello," "Coriolanus," and "The Tempest," and tells the story of each. The method is excellent, but primary; it fails especially in those plays in which the course of events is the least part of the drama (the interest being in the conduct of the characters), such as "Lear" and "The Tempest"; and more than once absorption in the action causes the author to undervalue a character, such as *Hamlet* or *Richard II.*, which does not submit to be measured by the accidents of a career. The volume is happily free from over-speculation, intricacy, and subtlety; it is not at all "profound"; and for these reasons it should be useful to young students, or to older students who are beginning to read the plays reflectively.

Mr. Edward McPherson's 'Handbook of Politics for 1890' (Washington: James J. Chapman) reminds us that since the appearance of the last volume six new States have been admitted to the Union, and that while there has been much Congressional legislation "about and about," the sum of achievement has been small in comparison with the measures still left hanging between the two houses. The present volume retains those features which have made the series indispensable to the student of politics, and adds a chapter of decided novelty and importance, with a wider retrospect than two years. The legislative history of the Coinage Act of 1873 (Forty-first and Forty-second Congresses) has been carefully

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drawn out, and placed after the record of resolutions, bills, and votes on the silver question in the Fifty-first Congress. "Within these twenty-six pages will be found," says Mr. McPherson, "as sharp a contrast of political opinion and action as the public life of our country has afforded." The Mills Bill is another landmark in the volume before us, the Force Bill a third, the McKinley Tariff Bill a fourth. It is evident that the 'Handbook' for 1890 will be at least as often consulted as its predecessors. Even the demise of the Blair Bill will prove a subject of reference, and we therefore will call Mr. McPherson's attention to two errors in his record of the Senate vote on p. 194. In the list of pairs, Ransom (pro) and Casey (con) should change places (see the *Congressional Record* for March 22, 1890, p. 2523), and this compels an alteration in the table below, so that 10 Western Senators shall be shown to have voted for, and 11 against the measure. Also, 3 Middle State Senators (not 2) voted yea, viz., Messrs. Evarts, Quay, and Higgins, and 2 (not 3) nay, viz., Messrs. Hiscock and Cameron. These errors neutralize each other, and leave Mr. McPherson's footings undisturbed.

There is no truth in the pretence that the volume called 'Abraham Lincoln's Pen and Voice,' for which Col. G. M. Van Buren is responsible (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.), is "a complete compilation" of Mr. Lincoln's "letters, civil, political, and military." No such collection can be made or will probably ever be attempted. The moderate size of this book and its coarse type show at a glance that completeness is impossible if only the letters are taken into the account; but the compiler has added sundry public addresses, messages to Congress, inaugurals, etc. All we can say is, since the arrangement is chronological, that the collection is convenient. We doubt if it will, again to quote the title-page, prove Lincoln to have been "the greatest constitutional student of the age, and the noblest pattern for future generations America has ever known." It does, however, reveal his growth in anti-slavery principle, and show him more to be revered at the end than at the beginning of his administration—a phenomenon not common among our Presidents.

In the *American Journal of Archæology* for March-June, M. Eugène Müntz continues his discussion of the "Lost Mosaics of Rome of the IV. to the IX. Century." Mr. A. L. Frothingham, jr., furnishes the longest paper, on the "Introduction of Gothic Architecture into Italy," with the aid of some very interesting plates of the Cistercian monastery of Fossanova, which has been declared a public monument. Mr. Frothingham sees in the French Cistercians in Italy the transplanters of French Gothic, whom the Dominicans and Franciscans copied. Happily their work is extremely well preserved, better than the corresponding structures of the order in France. Mr. Frothingham writes from extensive personal research. Other noticeable papers are "Reminiscences of Egypt in Doric Architecture," by Allan Marquand; and "Greek Sculptured Crowns and Crown Inscriptions," by George B. Hussey of the American School at Athens. Mr. Hussey concludes that the pendent crown or wreath represents the better periods of Greek art; the erect the later (time of Trajan or Hadrian).

The United States Potters' Association is considering a proposition from the Pennsylvania Museum and School of Industrial Art to conduct a Pottery School if the potters will do their part towards defraying the expense. The scheme looks also to the establishment of a ceramic museum embracing every kind of pottery produced to-day. The Association's committees highly favor the project.

Mr. John Edmands, librarian of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia, begins in his July Bulletin a noteworthy Junius bibliography, in two divisions: Editions of the letters; Publications about Junius. In both these classes, says Mr. Edmands, the Mercantile Library's collection is the largest in the country; but his indications are also for other American libraries and for the British Museum.

From Mr. George Watson Cole of the Newberry Library, Chicago, we receive his ingenious "Cataloguer's Size Card," by means of which, with the least trouble and delay, the size of books can be determined in accordance with the scale recommended by the American Library Association; or the actual measurements in centimetres can be read off. This card is for sale at the Library Bureau, Boston.

Dr. Knipping of Tokio announces an interesting result of his studies of the Japanese daily weather maps that are prepared under his direction. It appears that one of his stations on the northwestern side of the greater island, at the foot of high volcanic ridges, sometimes reports higher temperature and lower humidity than the surrounding stations. On collecting a number of cases of this kind, it was found that they were all accompanied by low pressures on the Japan Sea, and hence by a southeast wind, whose source must have been beyond the volcanic ridges, down from which it was drawn to the northwestern coast. Dr. Knipping therefore places this Japanese wind with the Foehn of the Alps and the Chinook of our Rocky Mountains, as belonging to a species of air-current whose temperature is raised and whose humidity is lowered by the compression that it suffers as it is drawn down a mountain range of considerable height on its way to a cyclonic centre of low pressure.

The International Congress of Geographic Science will be held next year in Berne, at the beginning of August, under the auspices of the local Geographical Society.

—An eleventh volume now closes the laborious enterprise of Mr. Stedman and Miss Hutchinson, 'A Library of American Literature from the Earliest Settlement to the Present Time' (Chas L. Webster & Co.). Miss Murfree opens and Miss Dora Read Goodale concludes the part which is the proper extension and termination of the scheme, and Miss Goodale's birth year, 1866 (she is not, like some of her sex here represented, old enough to conceal her age), gives us the extreme date at which the Library puts up its shutters and locks the door against all literary aspirants. But the present volume is also used to repair omissions and supply additional selections, to exhibit short biographies (by Arthur Stedman) of all the authors exemplified, and to provide a general index. The new portraits are of F. Marion Crawford, Miss Murfree, Geo. P. Lathrop, J. B. McMaster, Brander Matthews, Thos. Nelson Page, James Whitcomb Riley, Harry S. Edwards, Edith M. Thomas, and H. C. Bunner—names all, with one exception, well known as lights or leaders of the literary generation which was born in the sixth and seventh decades of the century. Quite as many writers of equal or but little subordinate fame or talent on the list might also have been pictured, and belong to the future, so that the outlook is not discouraging, and least of all, perhaps, on the side of poetry. The strength of the collection as a whole is, as we have from time to time pointed out and as the index shows conspicuously, historical and biographical, including in the latter term the index division called "Personal Characterizations." This would have been much impaired by the neglect of Henry Adams, Hay and Nicolay, and James Schouler, in restoring whom the supplementary volume has served a useful purpose. The Oratorical selections, "Correspondence," "Politics, Government, etc.," and "Slavery," form other marked groups akin to the foregoing. Poetry is very conveniently displayed by titles or by first lines, and fills nine pages of the index. The "Noted Sayings" have been greatly increased in the final volume, and these have sometimes an etymological value, as in the case of the term Mugwump. President Cleveland's household words and Bishop Potter's are here recorded; so is Flanaghan's frank inquiry, "What are we here for?" at the Republican National Convention of 1880; but the editors leave it a riddle for those who forget the answer supplied by the Texan himself—"The offices." We part company with a serious and in the main successful endeavor to furnish a readable and profitable conspectus of American literary production. It will, we are sure, be a missionary for good wherever it is owned and read. It is truly a library, as it takes the place of many books, and it rightly errs on the side of fulness and catholicity.

— The ever-swelling tide of American philosophic literature has just been enriched by a new book about Hegel, of which it is fair to say that the production would have been impossible a dozen years ago. We refer to the handsomely printed volume by Dr. J. McBride Sterrett, entitled 'Studies in Hegel's Philosophy of Religion' (Appleton). With the aid of recent English and American commentators, such as Green, the Cairds, Harris, Morris, Seth, and others, the author goes valiantly to work to lubricate the uncouth original for our deglutition, with a success which will probably be found considerable, so far as the divinity schools of the land are concerned. Hegel's principle that all differences can be reconciled if one will only ascend to the higher point of view, his doctrine that untruth is partial truth, and his perfect optimism, all harmonize singularly well both with the optimistic and conciliatory spirit which animates the liberal theology of our day, with its far stronger interest in human progress than in Adam's fall. The only obstacles to the reception of the Hegelian philosophy by our theologians, apart from the intolerable style of it, have been its preposterous show of deducing things by the dialectical method, and the ambiguous sound which it gives forth about God's personality and man's immortality. Dr. Sterrett practically ignores the dialectical method, and insists (rather darkly, it is true) that Hegelism is sound on the immortality question. Of course his book seems full of vagueness and evasion to readers trained on empiricism, who, when they fall to reasoning, like "the rigor of the game." But there is an appearance of logical procedure about it, its spirit is sanguine, its results are cheerful, while its method of constantly striving towards the widest and most reconciling point of view is, after all, the eternally best one; so it is safe to predict for its author a certain success. In an appendix he discusses in an interesting way the problem of union among our churches.

—The annual reports of the Chief Signal Officer have for several years past contained among their appendices certain papers of high scientific value from two of the leading civilian members of the service. Ferrel's 'Recent Advances of Meteorology' was the first of these;

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Abbe's 'Treatise on Meteorological Instruments' was the second; and the latter author now contributes to the report for 1889 an essay of a hundred and sixty-five pages, entitled "Preparatory Studies for Deductive Methods in Storm and Weather Predictions." The chief interest in this work comes from its being the well-matured expression of Prof. Abbe's views on this difficult branch of meteorology in which he has had so long a practice; to those who are familiar with modern physical meteorology, it will furnish extremely suggestive reading, and on many other matters than weather prediction alone. The leading idea of the studies is the convectional motion of the atmosphere, as determined locally by heating at the ground, or in a broader way by the presence of large masses of warm and moist air. It is a matter of regret that other and earlier publications of this nature have not appeared from the Signal Office. There have been extended climatic studies as to mean temperature, average rainfall, and other subjects of importance, and there have been a number of "professional papers" of scientific value; but the immediate problem which the Weather Bureau has to solve — namely, "What will to-morrow's weather be?"—has received little attention in print. A number of army lieutenants have attacked this problem in the discharge of their duty as predicting officers, but we have practically no record of their experience. It is as if their results had never been mentally formulated, or, when formulated, as if they had been regarded as private property, and not material for appendices to the annual reports. Every schoolboy may learn that weather changes generally move eastward over our country; but the numerous exceptions to this rule must be mastered before to-morrow's weather can be properly predicted. A full statement of these exceptions might have been expected from the Signal Service, but it has not been forthcoming.

—The latest anthology from Heine for the school-room, Prof. Horatio S. White's 'Selections from Heine's Poems,' in Heath's "Modern Language Series," deserves the highest praise, both for the principle which guided the selection, and the accurate scholarship displayed in the editing. We have not discovered a single misprint either in the text or in the notes, which are concerned with the linguistic and metrical characteristics of Heine's poetry rather than with the grammatical difficulties that beset the path of the ordinary student of German. The classification of Heine's verse into "faulty, dialectic, and curious rimes" is somewhat arbitrary. Considering the lack of recognized standards of pure rhymes in German poetry, to which, indeed, Prof. White himself refers, it will hardly serve a useful purpose to append a list of such "irregular" rhymes as *Blätter, Städter; Gelächter, Töchter; einher, leer*, etc. With the sole exception of the pedantic Platen, German poetry is full of impure rhymes, and unavoidably so. We recall at random *Knapp, hinab; Höh', See; keck, weg* in Schiller ("Der Taucher"); *Gwinnst, Dienst*, in Schiller ("Der Graf von Habsburg") and Goethe ("Der Gott und die Bajadere"); *verehrt, unerhört; quäle, Seele* in Goethe ("Die Braut von Corinth"), etc. The "curious" rhymes, however, are amply worth pointing out, even if it were only to contrast Heine's skill in this respect, his *Klopstock, Haubenkopfstock; Romantik, Uhland, Tieck; Lob ist, Mirabeau bist*, etc., with Byron's *Portugal, De Stäel; Trecentisti, this t'ye*, and other halting *tours de force*. Among the "antiquated, obsolescent, or unusual words or forms" we notice *gestunken*, which is unobjectionable from any point of view except the æsthetic. *Weiland* is the official term which German newspapers of the present day prefix to the titles of defunct princely celebrities, and *sputet euch* also hardly falls under any of the above categories. *Träumen seligen Traum* and *denk' ich alter Geschichten* are "grammatical irregularities" only in the sense in which any poetic expression differs from ordinary speech. The critical estimate of Heine in the preface is, for its compass, one of the justest and most comprehensive with which we are familiar; but we fear the alleged deathbed conversion of the poet had in it even less of the element of sincerity than Prof. White is disposed to accord to it. "If Heine's last days," he says, "are to be considered as a retribution, he may be said to have expiated his offences." We have the authority of Gustav Karpeles, one of the best informed of Heine's biographers, for the statement that when, three or four days before his death, he was asked by an anxious friend what his relations to his God were, the poet replied, rather irreverently for a dying man: "Dieu me pardonnera, c'est son métier."

—In May last M. Salomon Reinach delivered a discourse which may be called a monograph on the Arch of Titus, before the Paris Société des Études Juives. As now published in a handsome brochure ('L'Arc de Titus et les Dépouilles du Temple,' Paris: A. Durlacher), it will be found a highly interesting summary of all that is known about one of the most venerable monuments of Rome. The address begins with an historical sketch of the revolt of the Jews that led to the triumph commemorated by the arch, pictures the appearance and traces the route of the triumphal procession, and then in detail tells of the building of the arch, its dimensions, material, dilapidation in the Middle Ages, and wise restoration by Pius VII. in the first quarter of the present century. Every tourist in Rome will be thankful for these particulars. But M. Reinach, in the pursuit of his main object, enters into artistic considerations, judging and interpreting the sculptured ornament, which wholly relates to the triumphal procession. To be noted here, among less obvious features, are the symbolic figure of the River Jordan in the battered line of figures on the architrave of the arch; and the several planes of relief and perspective in the famous panel within the arch on which we see the spoils of the Temple—the seven-branched candle-stick in the only representation that has come down to us, etc. M. Reinach inquires what became of these precious objects, whose successive transfers until they were restored to Jerusalem are recorded. Finally, he examines the tradition that no Jew was allowed to pass through the Arch of Titus, and that the inhabitants of the Ghetto, in going from the Coliseum to the Capitol, wore a path between the monument and the Palatine. He suggests a different explanation by reference to the orthodox Jews' abhorrence of images, such as surmounted every Roman arch, to say nothing of the dolorous feelings evoked by the sculpture of the Arch of Titus; and he concludes with a proud reflection on the monotheistic triumph of Judaism that dates precisely from the dispersion consequent upon the defeat and humiliation commemorated, and was indeed the result of the downfall of Jerusalem.

—M. H. Vuibert's 'Annuaire de la Jeunesse pour l'année 1890' (Paris: Nony & Cie.) does not compete with M. Jost's smaller official 'Annuaire de l'Enseignement Primaire,' to which one must still turn for the personnel of directors, inspectors, instructors, and school committees as well as for the text of the pertinent laws and decrees relating to primary education. M. Vuibert aims to place in the hands of parents a complete general view of the means of education open to their children in all grades, both in the institutions, primary and superior, maintained gratuitously by the Government, and in the secondary and private institutions, with indication of programmes, prizes, and scholarships. He is the good adviser in the choice of a career or a profession, and, by the motto of his book (taken from Franklin) and his opening remarks, is shown to be an ardent advocate of the spread of national intelligence. He also incidentally makes it clear that the ruin of the Second Empire was the dawn of a brighter day for the schoolmaster in France. In 1873, Jules Simon, then Minister of Public Instruction, was ashamed to show to foreigners the miserably equipped Sorbonne and School of Medicine. Since 1875 the number of chairs and of students in the higher education has nearly doubled. In 1881 primary education was made gratuitous in all public schools; in 1882 attendance up to the age of thirteen was made obligatory, and the system was wrought over almost *de novo*. The result has been a diminution by three-fourths of schools for illiterate adults. In 1880 a great lift was given to the manual schools of apprenticeship. In 1878 took place the first effective organization of university libraries. The very newest movement, looking towards physical education by open-air exercise and games in the English fashion, began in 1888, and already counts two societies of active propagandism, several athletic unions, and a growing "literature," in which M. Vuibert cites the latest work, that of M. Pierre Coubertin—fruit of his recent travel in this country—'Universités Transatlantiques.' A large block of the volume before us, which fills some 900 pages and has maps and a certain number of illustrations, is, of course, devoted to Paris. The appendix includes a number of statutes of 1886-1890 on nationality, recruiting for the army, the protection of children, etc. This is followed by calendars, census tables, and practical directions about travelling, in which we remark how the numbering of the railway carriages facilitates receiving a telegram *en route*, and that if trains do not stop long enough to enable one to send a despatch, the railroad's agents must attend to the service.

THE EARLY DIARY OF FRANCES BURNEY.—II.

The Early Diary of Frances Burney. 1768–1778. Edited by Annie Raine Ellis. 2 vols. London: George Bell & Sons.

LET us look for a moment at Miss Burney's diary as a picture of her times. A mere glance tells us that the England which she painted was very different from the England of to-day. Yet a good deal of thought is needed to see wherein the difference consists. There are few, if any, single passages from Miss Burney's letters or journals which might not conceivably be written by a clever young lady in 1890; yet whoever reads her diaries as a whole is conscious of a tone, an atmosphere, a coloring—one hardly knows the right word in which to convey one's meaning—which betrays a vital distinction, not only between the habits, but, what is of far more consequence, between the sentiment of 1768 or 1778 and the customs and feelings of 1890.

The life of Miss Burney and her sisters has in it an amount of color, of gayety, and of merriment which you will hardly find to-day in

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the lives of English ladies belonging to the same class as the Burneys. Modern Englishwomen see "a great deal more of the world," in one sense of those words, than did their grandmothers. There are few of them who have not travelled, or had the opportunity of travelling, to places quite inaccessible to Miss Burney and her friends. A visit to Lynn or to Teignmouth was a more difficult undertaking in 1768 than is now a journey to Paris. It may also be fairly assumed that clever educated girls have now open to them a much wider field of literature than had the authoress of 'Evelina.' But if Englishwomen have now a wider horizon open to their view than had their grandmothers, it can hardly be contested that society was in some ways more interesting, and life more lively, in 1768 than at present. There were still marked differences between the society of different places; there were still local centres for social intercourse. Frances Burney would, in any civilized state of society, have found characters to portray wherever she went. Dulness itself became interesting when she painted it. But we very much doubt whether a young lady with her talents would find half as much to tell her correspondents about society at Teignmouth or at Worcester as Fanny Burney had to tell Mr. Crisp and her sisters.

One cause of this was that the English people were still sociable. During the middle of the eighteenth century it was possible at any rate to understand why the country should have been called "merry" England. Merriment is exactly the impression left upon one's mind by the picture of Barborne Lodge and its inhabitants. There is a touch of something like vulgarity in the jocosity which amused Mr. and Mrs. Wall. It is more than possible that an account of life in Worcestershire given by a writer of less refinement than Miss Burney might to modern ears have had a touch of coarseness. This may be so. Still, this does not take away from the impression that the Walls and their acquaintance really and genuinely amused themselves with a vigor not displayed by their descendants. There are theatres and assemblies and balls hardly to be met with in an English country town of to-day. The mere prominence of the theatre is a note of the eighteenth century; it filled the place now occupied by novels, and the theatre was, in Miss Burney's youth, represented by Garrick. He was one of the Burneys' intimate friends; he appears again and again in the diaries, and always appears as bright, charming, and lovable. The Burneys, it may be said, belonged to a theatrical set. This is true, but Garrick was the friend of Dr. Johnson and of Hannah More. English morality had not at the middle of the last century passed any condemnation on the theatre, and theatrical entertainments, not only in London but in the country, played a great part in the social life of England.

The color to be found in the society of the eighteenth century is heightened by the absence of a great deal of the dissatisfaction and self-searching which have grown up since the time when the world was delighted by 'Evelina.' It would be ridiculous to suppose that the habit of talking or writing about social, moral, or religious difficulties is in reality a cause to the mass of the world of any profound misery. People who are conventionally supposed in modern times to be wholly occupied with the problems of society or of religion often pass a very comfortable existence, though they have neither cut through nor untied the Gordian knots with which they have played. There is no ground whatever for supposing that ninety-nine out of every hundred persons who read 'Robert Elsmere,' whether with approval or disapprobation, are made permanently, if at all, miserable by the gravity of the issues suggested by Mrs. Ward's novel or tract, and by a score more of books which lie, or have lain, upon every drawing-room table. Still, when we come to compare one age with another, it is impossible not to feel that Miss Burney and her friends were utterly free from the burden, be it heavy or light, of the sort of questioning which has grown up during the period of more than a century which has elapsed since the writing of Miss Burney's early diary. She was a good and religious woman; she was, moreover, very impressionable and morbidly sensitive. Yet of religious and still more of social questions, her diary contains hardly a trace. Of the clergy and of their influence one learns from her pages next to nothing. There is not the least sign of ill-will to the Church, or of anything whatever which could be called scepticism; but, for all the show clergymen make in the records of Miss Burney's life, the Church might be non-existent. Mr. Hurrel, it is true, is a clergyman. This is the description of him:

"Mr. Hurrel is quite a poet's priest: he is as fat as *Falstaff*, unable to use exercise and eke unwilling; his love of ease is surpassed by nothing but his love of good living, which equals whatever detraction has hitherto devised for a parson's gluttony."

We all know that the Church of England possessed in Miss Burney's time, as at all other periods, priests very different from Mr. Hurrel. Still, it is characteristic of the period in which she wrote that Mr. Hurrel should have seemed to her a typical parson. Religion was to her and her contemporaries represented by Dr. Johnson, and Johnsonian morality had no tendency to excite a spirit of questioning or disquiet. We can hardly doubt that the happiness of the society in which Miss Burney lived, its mirth and its joyfulness, which to a modern reader seem rather foreign than English, were promoted by the freedom from the doubts which constantly occupy and occasionally harass the minds and feelings of the Englishwomen of to-day. Happiness, at any rate, consists, to a great extent, in the harmony between persons' actual lives and their ideals, and if the ideal of the eighteenth century was in some respects a lower one than that of the nineteenth, it was, in the case of women such as Miss Burney, far more nearly satisfied than are the ideals expressed or hinted at by the lady novelists who in later days have succeeded her. At the particular date when Miss Burney's diaries were written, the wave of religious feeling or conviction which is known as the Evangelical movement had not widely affected the well-to-do classes of Englishmen. There is not a trace in Miss Burney's early diary of her having felt any scruple at amusements, such as balls and playgoing, condemned with more or less decision by the "religious world" which was the creation of Evangelical teaching. But though this is so, there are one or two passages in her diaries which explain how it happened that the religious revival made the rapid progress it did in England towards the end of the eighteenth century.

Take, for example, this criticism on some of the views expressed by Goldsmith in the 'Vicar of Wakefield':

"He advances many very bold and singular opinions: for example, he avers that murder is the sole crime for which death ought to be the punishment, and ventures to affirm that our laws in regard to penalties and punishments are *all* too severe. This doctrine might be contradicted from the very essence of our religion—Scripture—for in the Bible, in Exodus particularly, death is commanded by God himself for many crimes besides murder."

The point to be noted for our present purpose is, that the writer of these sentences clearly lived in a world unaffected by either the humanitarianism or the scepticism of the eighteenth century. A humane young lady does not understand the objection to the profuse infliction of capital punishment, and an intelligent woman draws deductions from Scripture which nowadays would seem absurd to the dullest of Englishwomen. The truth is, that even persons who are completely free from what would ordinarily be called scepticism, have come unconsciously to look upon the Bible in a light utterly different from the light in which it was regarded by Miss Burney and her contemporaries. There is a curious passage to be found in the pages of 'Clarissa Harlowe,' where it is intimated that though the strength of Lovelace's passions made him a libertine, the force of his intellect kept him from being a freethinker, and that he believed intellectually in the eternity of punishments which he in practice ran the risk of incurring.

There existed, then, in England, towards the latter part of the eighteenth century, exactly the condition of opinion favorable for the occurrence of a religious revival. Puritan beliefs still exerted far greater influence than was visible to superficial observation; and though many of the clergy resembled Mr. Hurrel, there were still many men and women throughout the country who inherited the traditions and the piety of the High Churchmen of the seventeenth century. The mass of the English people were, moreover, then, as at all times, naturally disposed towards serious views of life. The dogmas which had moved the men of the seventeenth century were still tacitly accepted as true by the majority of Englishmen. The influence both of the Anglican clergy and of dissenting ministers had declined; there was a good deal of superficial scepticism current in fashionable and intellectual society. But the influence of Johnson, no less than of Burke, is a sufficient proof that the flow of English opinion did not in the main set towards scepticism or free-thinking. Preachers, therefore, who, like the Wesleyans or early Evangelicals, fervently believed in the religious doctrines which they preached, possessed one immense advantage. Their audiences tacitly admitted the truth of the dogmas on which the teaching, say, of Wesley, or later of Simeon, depended. The leaders of the religious movement did not need to establish the truth of the doctrines which they preached. Their task was the difficult, yet very different, one of insisting that their hearers should act in conformity with beliefs which their hearers themselves admitted to be well founded. The very dulness and moral torpor which deprived parsons like Mr. Hurrel of influence was enough, among a nation of Englishmen, to produce a reaction in favor of the teaching of men who, whatever their defects, were full of zeal and energy, and called upon their disciples to turn towards a nobler and higher life than could even be conceived of by such a "poet's priest" as Miss Burney's parson.

The change that passed over the English world between the time when Miss Burney's early diaries were written and the end of the eighteenth century, was exactly one of those changes of feeling which no one really predicted, but which, to a thinker who looks back philosophically on a past age, appear so natural a result of the circumstances of the time

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as to have been predictable. Oddly enough, one of the most striking figures among the circle of Miss Burney's friends affords in his life a curious example of the alteration in religious feeling undergone by English society. Arthur Young is known to English readers as the author of the celebrated 'Travels in France,' and as the leading scientific agriculturist of his time. There is not a word in his 'Travels,' and there is not an anecdote of him in Miss Burney's early diary, which suggests the idea that he was as a young man interested in religion or theology. The tone of his 'Travels in France' rather suggests that he shared the scepticism of his French friends, yet he ended his life as a man of profound and somewhat gloomy religious convictions. In 1798 he writes: "In London I am alone, and therefore at peace. I rise at four or five, and go to bed at nine or ten. I go to no amusements, and read some Scripture every day. I never lay aside my good books but for business." In 1814 he is spending his time in teaching Sunday-schools, and in preaching in a kind of chapel of his own. An unsympathetic biographer describes him as "mastered and unmanned" by sorrow. That he had his sorrows is certain, and there is something rather startling to those who know Arthur Young solely as the observer of French life on the eve of the great Revolution, in the picture of him as a conductor of Sunday services, "a second Wesley, a wonderful stirrer up of men's consciences, an unrivalled expounder of the Gospel." But it is well worth notice that the change in the religious sentiments of Young is merely one example of the alteration which took place in the sentiment or the convictions of the generation to which Young belonged. We are all of us apt to forget that the spirit of a time means nothing but the opinions and feelings of men and women living at a particular date, and that the progress of a religious movement means that religious convictions are developed in the minds and shown in the lives of definite persons. Young, in his gayety and in his seriousness, was the representative of his age. The close of his life is quite in harmony with the changed condition of English society; the spirit of the country had gained in depth and seriousness, but it had lost the innocent merriment and gayety which gives a singular charm to the society painted in the 'Early Diary of Frances Burney.'

CONWAY'S HAWTHORNE.

Life of Nathaniel Hawthorne. [Great Writers Series.] By Moncure D. Conway. New York: A. Lovell & Co. and Scribner & Welford.

THE difficulties in the way of a biographer of Hawthorne are considerable. It may be true, as Mr. Conway remarks in his preface, that "there are few authors with whom the world is more intimate than the one supposed to have most shunned its intimacy." The confessions of the Note-books, the revelations made by his son and his son-in-law, and the not inconsiderable mass of reminiscences in other volumes, may lead one to this broad statement; but on finishing Mr. Conway's compressed account gathered from this material, one still finds Hawthorne's actual life remote, and is not a whit nearer to any real knowledge of that genius which, even in his solitary life, seemed to make a new solitude of its own. The fresh material included by Mr. Conway is unimportant, with the exception of the letters, recently published in the *Athenæum*, upon his dismissal from the Custom-house at Salem and upon the loan of money then made by his friends, which were noted in these columns at the time. The exact nature of his escapades at college in gaming and drinking is more fully disclosed by a stray letter, Miss Peabody contributes an account of his early manhood in Salem, some particulars are added to the history of his friends' office-seeking on his behalf—this is practically all, and is all in the region of that personal detail which has come to be of such prodigious disproportion in modern biography. Mr. Conway's book, however, is an effective brief view of the author's career, well proportioned and readable, and contains some interesting observations upon the more marked phases of Hawthorne's life.

The story is in itself most depressing, mainly because of the circumstances which it records. Hawthorne appears to have been sensible that his infelicity had its beginnings in the period of his seclusion at Salem. It does not strike us that in boyhood or youth he was unsociable or eccentric; the absence of companions, however, after he left college, the increasing habit of a naturally brooding genius, the sense that he was making no impression on the world as year by year passed by, must have developed in him (perhaps without his taking notice of it at once) the reticence and withdrawal into self which were traits of his Puritan and seafaring blood. Dr. Loring's account of the neglect of him by Salem people (for the city was a place of some intellectual culture) is very much to the point. He was not known as an author, and he was not of the sort that makes friends. There was nothing extraordinary in his being "let alone." The same thing would happen to-day in any community. Hawthorne's isolation proceeded from himself. Nor does it appear that his "shyness" was merely the attribute of peculiar genius. Self-consciousness and pride, as well as temperament, went to its making. How much he prized success as a proof of manliness is clear from that letter to Hillard in which he accepts his friend's assistance, but calls it "bitter," and adds that "ill-success in life is really and justly a matter of shame." The sense of failure, as something by no means remotely possible in his case, was as present to him as his shadow for years. His withdrawal from literary men in particular is noticeable. On the other hand, the ease with which he met men of a rougher mould, the ordinary people of the common sort, and the pleasure he plainly took in the contact with them, are not less significant. He had no need to remember that he was "the obscurest literary man in America" in the presence of men to whom all literary men were perhaps equally obscure. He felt, doubtless, also in their company that relief from the "bodiless creation" which occupied his mind when by himself; but the point of interest is, that we do not observe any "shyness" in his intercourse with these companions. The lack of recognition of his genius, and a manly spirit offended by its lack of seeming efficiency, certainly aggravated unfortunate tendencies in his disposition.

The extent to which society is responsible for its sins of omission in the way of not at once knowing and encouraging its men of literary genius, is a question too often discussed only from the point of view of the poor author. There is a tendency just at present to ascribe the difficulties of our literary men in the past, as well as the present, to the lack of an international copyright. Mr. Conway gives unlimited influence to this fact in discussing the trials of Hawthorne. It may fairly be questioned, we think, whether the unknown writer of short stories under various signatures, in various periodicals, would have greatly benefited in his early days by the best of copyright regulations between England and America. As it was, he had the kindest assistance in getting before the world, so far as friends could give any. Horatio Bridge privately assumed the financial responsibility for his first collected volume of tales, and, so far as criticism could be helpful, he had Longfellow and Hillard to plead his cause with all the warmth of friendship, in addition to the weight of their criticism. At a later time Fields was the most stimulating and generous of publishers. Apart from literature, also, Hawthorne's friends endeavored repeatedly to obtain office for him, and succeeded in giving him custom-house appointments in Boston and Salem; and when the latter was cancelled, they gave him money in the most unassuming and considerate way. Finally he received the Liverpool Consulate from his friend President Pierce.

It is true that there is much meanness of a political color in his holding of these offices, which were in themselves little fitted for him, and also that they killed literature in him while he held them. Mr. Conway thinks there was something ignoble in the price paid for the Consulate, namely, the campaign biography of Pierce, and Hawthorne clearly thought it an unwelcome task; but for our part we see no inherent impropriety in a man of letters writing a fitting life of his friend who happens to be a candidate for the Presidency. It may be presumed that if he regards him sufficiently to own him as a friend, he can find enough to praise without compromising his own integrity; and if at the same time he serves a political cause in which he believes, so much the more reason for his doing his part as friend and citizen. It is unpleasing to us to know that Hawthorne's opinions upon slavery were wrong, but not to know that he expressed them; and we cannot help thinking that it is the character of Pierce, and not the act of Hawthorne, which makes this incident so unpalatable to Mr. Conway. Had the story been the life of Lincoln, our feelings with regard to it would probably be of a different sort. Hawthorne was reluctant to write the book, and he was quite as reluctant, we cannot but believe, to apply for office, or for retention in office, by the customary channels. His political servitude for bread must have always been repugnant; but Government did the best it could for him under the spoils system, his friends were active and interested always, and his publishers and editors seem to have paid him all just dues. To complain that the nation did not provide proper place or pension for Hawthorne, when it provides them for no literary man, or that society did not buy his books in sufficient quantities to support him before he became famous, seems to us beside the point. Literature is not with us a matter of national concern or of social patronage; it stands on its own bottom, like any other craft, and, under American ideas, is likely to do so.

The fact is, that the notion that the country suffers some disgrace in consequence of the domestic hardships and modest purse of Hawthorne and others in the pursuit of literature, is a relic of the paternal tradition of aristocratic society, which made men of letters a favored class, and gave them charity much in the same spirit as those who would exempt soldiers from the civil-service examinations. Hawthorne received the same treatment as every other citizen. Mr. Conway's assumption, therefore, that the country was in some way responsible for Hawthorne's troubles, and should have "protected" him from them, seems to us a fundamental error. He suffered

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the not unusual consequences of choosing a precarious and ill-paid career, the fruits of which are reaped rather by posterity than by the author, but this latter fact is one of the greatest inducements to it, under the form of fame or of social service. Hawthorne suffered poverty, but not injustice; he achieved a unique success, and honor with it, at the end, and he receives from his country all that he is entitled to—immortal memory.

The criticism of Mr. Conway upon the development of Hawthorne's genius, while it is sympathetic, and as penetrative as could be wished from one not himself shaped by Puritan tradition and New England habits, contributes little original to the general criticism of Hawthorne. He succeeds as little as the rest in laying open the secret of the creative process in Hawthorne, or even so tangible a thing as the growth of his style or of his mind. It is worth observing, perhaps, that he combats Col. Higginson's suggestion that Mr. William Austin, in "Peter Rugg the Missing Man," and other tales, was a "precursor" of Hawthorne, though the latter refined on the story named in 'Wakefield,' and gave a meaning to what in Mr. Austin's hands was only the stuff of superstition of a Dutch kind. Mr. Conway, however, fails to trace any obligation of the great romance-writer to the Godwin-bred moral fables of Mr. Austin, so far as style and treatment are concerned. The fact remains that Hawthorne's genius is one of the least derivative, the most purely original, of any in literature.

In the portion of Hawthorne's work that deals with the Puritan material directly, we find nothing specially to note in Mr. Conway; but with respect to the 'Marble Faun,' the comments of the biographer are extremely interesting, inasmuch as he attempts to penetrate the influence of Rome upon Hawthorne. This is a promising field, because here we do seem to come upon a change in the mind of the man, as if he were slowly but perceptibly appropriating the novel influences of Italian art and history. Hawthorne's opinions upon art are singular from the point of view of a competent judge, but they have the merit of being true to his own perceptions at the time, and the gradual growth of his taste and opening of his nature to the effects of art make a most interesting study. The inaccuracy of his memory, and sometimes of his eye, have lately been illustrated in these columns in the letters of the late Mr. Schuyler upon Hawthorne's use of Italian materials; but that some of this modification was conscious is not unlikely. Rome made a profound impression on him, as he himself says, but Mr. Conway attempts to define this as, in part at least, a religious impression, and speculates as to the extent of it under this aspect. Hawthorne was not a religious man, as that phrase is understood, but certain new aspects of Christian feeling seem to have been revealed to him with some power by the artists. This change in the point of view in such a matter, taking place late in life, makes an effective contrast, and its influence may be clearly perceived, both in the romance of Monte Beni and in the Italian Note-books. The subject of Hawthorne's religion, in view of the spirituality of his imagination and his profound moral interest, is a capital point in the criticism of him, and has never been thoroughly treated. Mr. Conway's paragraphs are no more than an episode, but they are suggestive and strike out some new lines. He notes in another place Hawthorne's indifference to philanthropy, conspicuously shown in the matter of slavery, but does not offer to throw light upon it. This latter trait is the more singular because of his kindness to individuals, and in general his responsiveness to any call for benevolent action when it came near him, as, for example, in his effort to improve the condition of sailors during his Consulate and in his attentions to Delia Bacon, of which Mr. Conway might well have made more prominent use. Philanthropy was, perhaps, somewhat discredited in his eyes by the Brook Farm episode, and by that procession of oracle-consulters at Emerson's gate which he looked upon. These subjects are removed from the particular inquiry into his genius, which is the more immediate object of criticism, but they illustrate the extent to which Hawthorne remains, notwithstanding Mr. Conway's opening assertion, little better known to us in his personality than in his genius, although so much detail has been gathered about his private affairs. In conclusion, we can cordially recommend this book to those who desire a general view of Hawthorne's days and works.

Madagascar; or, Robert Drury's Journal during fifteen years' captivity on that island. And a further description of Madagascar by the Abbé Alexis Rochon. Edited, with an introduction and notes, by Capt. P. Oliver. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890. 8vo, 398 pp.

THE hero of these adventures was an English lad who, in 1702, was wrecked on the south-eastern coast of Madagascar. On account of his youth his life was spared in the general massacre of the ship's company by the islanders, and he was made the slave of one of their chiefs. In this condition he remained for fifteen years, suffering many hardships, until at length he was ransomed by an English captain. On his return to England he wrote out his story, and gave it to some "transcriber" to "put it in a more agreeable Method." This unknown editor did the work so ably that he is believed by many to have been the author of 'Robinson Crusoe.' The grounds for this supposition are alleged similarity of style and the fact that Defoe laid some of the scenes of 'Capt. Singleton' and 'Capt. Avery' in Madagascar. The first edition, of which the present is a reprint, appeared in 1729, and the work immediately became popular, reaching its fourth edition within twenty years.

Until recently the veracity of Drury's narrative has not been impeached, and he has been quoted as an authority by nearly all who have written upon the island since his time. Of late the book has been regarded by some, including the present editor, as a romance founded on fact, for of the reality of the sailor-boy Robert Drury there can be no reasonable doubt. The arguments urged by Capt. Oliver against its authenticity, however, do not convince us. On the contrary, the supposition that a writer, using the few books then in existence upon Madagascar, could have invented the incidents and characters of the narrative and described the customs and language of the natives with an accuracy testified to by "the missionaries of all sects," seems to us to make far greater demands upon the credulity than the belief that the story is a true one. It may be added that the writer of the article on Robert Drury in the 'Dictionary of National Biography,' Mr. Richard Garnett of the British Museum, regards the book as authentic.

The story is told with great simplicity, the editor's work apparently being mainly to supply occasional historical and literary references and moral and didactic remarks. The boy's principal occupation was that of a herdsman, in which he was often exposed to danger from the frequent cattle raids in which all the tribes engage. His adventures are numerous, though so similar in character as to become somewhat monotonous. But the account of his escape from his tyrannical master, and solitary journey through the mountainous region separating the territory of his captors from the Sakalavas, thoroughly revives the reader's interest. The different chiefs with whom he has to do are portrayed with a distinctness and individuality rare in accounts of savages. Equally good are his descriptions of the daily life of the people. His first entry into a village, as a slave, was marked by a peculiar scene.

"One of the negroes carried a large shell, which, as soon as he blowed, sounded like a post-boy's horn. This brought the women to a great house in the middle of the town, about twelve foot high, which I soon found to be my master's. He had scarce seated himself at his door when his wife came out, crawling on her hands and knees till she came to him, and then licked his feet; when she had done, his mother did the same; and all the women in the town saluted their husbands in the same manner."

Drury at first obstinately refused to conform to this revolting custom, but a kindly brother of his master "told me the danger of not doing it, and that in submitting to it I did no more than what many great princes were forced to do when taken prisoners. I found, at length, it was best to comply, so I went in and asked pardon, and performed the ceremony as others had done."

There is an amusing passage in which Drury attempts to explain the Mosaic account of the creation, and especially that "of the woman's being made out of a rib," to one of the most intelligent of the chiefs. This was received with derisive laughter, and on Drury's insisting "that a man had one rib less on one side than on the other," the natural *argumentum ad hominem* was urged. "We had two women with us; one was very lean, whom they called and told her ribs, finding them equal; and then a man, and found the same." Naturally, this did not increase Deean Murnanzack's confidence in his teacher. The latter's missionary work appears to have ended when, after an account of the Deluge, the astute Malagasy asked: "'If none but Noah, with his sons and daughters, were saved, pray, was Noah a white man or a black man?' To which I answered, 'Sir, I perceive you give no credit to what I say of this nature.'" It is difficult to understand why the editor should have thought that an abridged version of the Abbé Rochon's dull description of Madagascar was worthy of being reprinted. It adds somewhat to the bulk, but little to the interest or the value of this entertaining volume.

What's the Matter? or, Our Tariff and its Taxes. By N. H. Chamberlain. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.

THE strong feeling that animates this book is an indication that the abuses against which it is directed are beginning to be properly estimated. Not long ago most people refused to be interested in tariff discussion, regarding the whole matter as too technical for common apprehension, and being satisfied to leave it to be dealt with by Congress. But now the policy of protection is being considered on its merits by all sorts and conditions of men, and the injustice of the principle upon which it is founded is becoming widely recognized. The reform movement, therefore, is ready for the infusion of the dynamic element—moral earnestness; and it is the merit of Mr. Chamberlain that he discerns the signs of the times and throws

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himself into the work of conversion with the ardor of the true missionary.

As it is impossible in such an enterprise to avoid dealing with figures, Mr. Chamberlain gives them a sugar-coating by casting his argument in the form of a narrative. The chief spokesman is a manufacturer who has been obliged to close his works, owing to the taxes upon the materials that he employs, and the listeners and interlocutors are many of them his employees. The disguise is rather thin, but is perhaps sufficient to secure an interest at the start, which the vigorous style of the book will sustain. The fallacies of protectionism are exposed, one after the other, in a manner well adapted for popular comprehension, and the positions of the author are fortified by an admirable collection of notes. He has evidently made an extremely careful study of what has been published on the subject, and has selected the most telling and conclusive statements. The array is certainly formidable, and not the least effective part of it is the summary of the opinions of Republican leaders upon the necessity of tariff-revision. Altogether, the book is adapted to our present wants and deserves an extensive circulation. Those who wish to read for themselves, or to put in the hands of others, a vigorous onslaught on protectionism, well sustained by facts and figures, can hardly do better than procure this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Atherton, Gertrude Franklin. Hermia Suydam. John W. Lovell Co. 50 cents.
Bly, Nellie. Around the World in 72 Days. Pictorial Weeklies Co. 50 cents.
Braun, H. Archiv für soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik. 2er Jahrgang. Tübingen: H. Laupp; New York: International News Co.
Brush, Christine Chaplin. One Summer's Lessons in Practical Perspective. Boston: Roberts Bros. 75 cents.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. Schiller's Jungfrau von Orleans. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Chittenden, Rev. E. P. The Pleroma: A Poem of the Christ. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Cook, Prof. A. S. Sir Philip Sidney's Defense of Poesy. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Dixon, A. C. The True and the False. Baltimore: Wharton, Barron & Co.
Emerson, R. W. Representative Men, Nature, Addresses and Lectures. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Fagan, W. L. Southern War Songs. New York: M. T. Richardson & Co. $3.50.
Ford, W. C. Writings of George Washington. Vol. VII. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
France, A. Abeille. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Gomme, G. L. The Gentleman's Magazine Library. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.50.
Graham, Dr. D. Treatise on Massage. 2d ed. J. H. Vail & Co. $2.75.
Hayward, R. B. The Elements of Solid Geometry. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Health for Little Folks. American Book Company.
Howell, G. The Conflicts of Labor and Capital. 2d ed. Macmillan & Co. $2.50.
Kerly, D. M. An Historical Sketch of the Equitable Jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery. Cambridge, England: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Knight, F. A. By Leafy Ways: Brief Studies from the Book of Nature. 4th ed. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Knight, F. A. Idylls of the Field. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.50.
Loomis, L. C. Myself: The Great Teachers of Mankind on the Nature of Mind and the Laws of Life. John B. Alden.
Lord & Thomas's Pocket Directory for 1890: A Complete List of Newspapers, Magazines, and Periodicals in the United States and Canada. Chicago: Lord & Thomas.
Macquoid, Katharine S. At an Old Château. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Malleson, Col. G. B. Akbar. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
McConnell, S. D. History of the American Episcopal Church. Thomas Whittaker. $2.
McPherson, E. Hand-book of Politics. Aug. 31, 1888—July 31, 1890. Washington: J. J. Chapman. $2.
Meredith, G. The Tale of Chloe. John W. Lovell Co. 25 cents.
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